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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE.

MAY, 1844.

ART. I.—SKETCHES OF COMMERCIAL LEGISLATION.

FREE TRADE VS. PROTECTION—DEBATE IN THE UNITED STATES SENATE.

SUCH of our readers as take any interest in the question of Free Trade *versus* Protection, and have paid attention to the proceedings in Congress since the opening of the present session, must be impressed with the conviction that the subject has never been more ably and thoroughly sifted than in the Senate during the debate on Mr. McDuffie's bill for the restoration of the compromise act. Although the discussion of the tariff policy was irregular on the pending question, inasmuch as no immediate or even remote practical action, affecting the existing tariff act, could be expected to result from the debate, yet the very circumstance that nothing was in view but opportunity for a fair argument on the policy of protection, had its advantages; because, the field was cleared of perplexing interests and details, and the encounter of intellect with intellect could proceed, unembarrassed, for the triumph of sound principles. There was also another advantage: that of conducting such an argument in the Senate in preference to the House of Representatives. The long term for which senators are elected, conducing to that maturity of judgment which results from experience in legislation; the fact that many senators have been frequently re-elected, still accumulating their experience; the consideration that, previous to taking their seats, not a few served for years in the other house, and must consequently retain much of the popular feelings which there prevailed; and the well-founded presumption that all are chosen by their respective legislatures as able, competent, and discreet state-delegates to the national council: concur in giving weight and dignity to their proceedings, and in inspiring that confidence which the sound-thinking and influential portion of the community will always accord to the argumentative deliberations of the Senate, contrasted with the impulsive, stormy, and partisan contests of the popular branch of Congress.

From these observations, it will be seen we are far from believing that,

because no immediate practical result was to attend its close, time has been misspent in this discussion. We are inclined to look upon it as a debate of great and general importance; well-timed, and well calculated to enlighten the public mind upon an intricate subject of paramount national interest. Impressed with this belief, we feel that we cannot better dispose of a few pages of our present number than by devoting them to an impartial review of the arguments advanced, during this debate, for and against the protective tariff policy. Previous, however, to entering upon the review contemplated, it is necessary to state the preliminary proceedings:

On Monday, the 18th of December, Mr. McDuffie, of South Carolina, gave notice, in Senate, that he would next day, or at the earliest convenient opportunity, ask leave to introduce a bill to revive the act of the 2d of March, 1833, (usually called the compromise act,) and to modify existing duties on foreign imports in conformity with its provisions. Next day, (Tuesday the 19th,) agreeably to the foregoing notice, he asked, and, *sub silentio*, obtained leave to introduce his bill,* which was read twice and referred to the committee on finance. Mr. King, of Alabama, admonished the committee to consider the question of jurisdiction, as he had his doubts relative to the practice of Congress with regard to permitting bills affecting revenue to originate in the Senate. Mr. McDuffie thought that whatever doubt might exist as to the propriety of originating bills to *raise revenue*, there could be none as to the propriety of the initiatory movement to *reduce taxation*. Mr. Evans, of Maine, chairman of the finance committee, did not object to the reference, at the same time he expressed strong doubts as to the propriety of originating such a bill in the Senate.

On Tuesday, the 9th of January, Mr. Evans reported back the bill, from the finance committee, accompanied by a report† consisting of two resolutions, the first in the nature of a preamble, and the second as its conclusion, to postpone indefinitely the consideration of the bill. The bill and report were ordered to be printed; and the question, on the report, was made the special order for the next Thursday, the 11th. In consequence, however, of other business interfering on the appointed day, the

* The following is a copy of the bill:—

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That so much of the existing law imposing duties upon foreign imports as provides that duties ad valorem on certain commodities shall be assessed upon an assumed *minimum* value, be, and the same is hereby, repealed; and that said duties be hereafter assessed on the true value of such commodities.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, in all cases in which the existing duty upon any imported commodity exceeds thirty per centum on the value thereof, such duty shall hereafter be reduced to thirty per centum ad valorem.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That, from and after the 31st day of December next, all duties upon foreign imports shall be reduced to twenty-five per centum; and, from and after the 31st of December, 1844, to twenty per centum ad valorem.

† The following are the resolutions:—

Resolved, That the bill entitled "A bill to revive the act of the 2d March, 1833, usually called the compromise act, and to modify the existing duties upon foreign imports in conformity with its provisions," is a bill for raising revenue within the meaning of the 7th section of the 1st article of the Constitution, and cannot therefore originate in the Senate: therefore

Resolved, That it be indefinitely postponed.

subject did not come up for discussion till Thursday, the 18th of January, when, on Mr. Evans's motion, the finance committee's report was taken up. Mr. King remarked that he considered the bill itself, and not the committee's report, the proper subject for discussion. The chair viewed the question at issue as one on an adverse report. Mr. King contended that common sense and parliamentary usage pointed out the course to be, that opportunity should be given to perfect the bill and render it acceptable, before a motion to postpone indefinitely could with propriety be put. The chair, however, seemed to think that the question on the committee's report had precedence of the consideration of the bill. Mr. Evans disclaimed any unwillingness, on his part or that of his friends, to meet the discussion of the bill on its merits; what the committee had in view was, to obtain a decision of the Senate on the question of jurisdiction.

Considerable discussion arose on this point; in the course of which it transpired, that it was competent to debate the merits of the bill on the question of adopting the committee's report. It was, therefore, decided that the discussion should proceed on that question. Mr. Evans then addressed the Senate at great length and with much ability, on the isolated point of jurisdiction, supporting the view taken by the majority of the finance committee. He argued that the words in the constitution, "raising revenue," clearly indicated *providing* revenue; and, as the bill first went to repeal, substantially, the present tariff act, and then to dictate the duties to be levied hereafter, it was strictly a bill for *providing*, that is, *raising* revenue. Mr. Woodbury looked upon this as a fastidious objection, the practice of the Senate having heretofore given sanction to the principle of originating bills of a similar character, the object of which was obviously not adverse to the constitutional prohibition. He instanced several bills materially affecting the revenue of the post-office, which had originated in the Senate; and with regard to the general revenue, referred to Senate bills now on the statute-book affecting tonnage duties on shipping, and drawbacks, as well as reducing duties on wines and other articles. He opposed the report as an innovation on the established rights of the Senate. Mr. Huntington, of Connecticut, denied that postage was revenue; and did not consider the instances referred to, by Mr. Woodbury, analagous to the present case. He supported the views taken by Mr. Evans, chairman of the finance committee. Mr. Buchanan admitted that a difficulty had occurred to him in the progress of the debate on the question of jurisdiction, which was, that it was competent to amend the bill; and if an amendment were adopted raising the duty on any one article, or subjecting a free article to duty, it would undoubtedly make the bill a bill to raise revenue, within the prohibition of the constitution.

Next day, (the 19th,) when the subject was resumed, Mr. McDuffie took the floor and spoke for three hours, principally on the merits of the bill. He dwelt but very briefly on the preliminary question of jurisdiction; answering Mr. Buchanan's objection, by admitting that such an amendment as he supposed, if adopted, would be fatal to the bill; but he contended that it could not be entertained in view of the constitutional interdict, and, therefore, the unconstitutionality would consist, not in entertaining the bill, but in adopting the amendment. The true intent and meaning of the constitutional prohibition was, to prevent the Senate from increasing the taxes and burdens of the people. But he considered it quite conformable to the spirit and purpose of the framers of the consti-

tution to diminish taxation, and relieve the people from unequal and unjust burdens—the very object this bill had in view.

The Senate having tacitly acquiesced in the understanding that the widest latitude should be given to the discussion, Mr. McDuffie, as the mover of the measure to restore the compromise act, took the lead, and stated his views in opposition to the protective tariff policy with eloquence and power. The authentic copy of his speech, published in the *Globe*, is, we understand, compressed into half the length at which it was delivered. Yet we are necessarily compelled to subject, not only it, but all the speeches delivered on the occasion, to much greater compression, with a view of getting into the limits we can devote to the subject this month, an epitome of the main points of controversy.

Looking through Mr. McDuffie's opening speech with much care and attention, we are enabled to give the following synopsis of his argument :

The tariff law of 1842, he insists, should be called an act to *prevent*, instead of an act to *provide* revenue. He says : "It is entitled an act to *provide* revenue—falsehood and deception stamped on the very front of it. A bill to *provide revenue* ! which lays an average duty of 100 per cent on several descriptions of imports that would come into the United States, to the amount of \$40,000,000 annually, under a revenue duty of 20 per cent, but which are now totally excluded by these enormous duties. I will not go into details, but state generally, that the duties on window-glass range from 94 to 178 per cent, making an average of more than 150 per cent on all descriptions ; that the duties on many varieties of manufactured iron, embracing most of the tools and implements necessarily used on every farm and plantation in the country, are from 75 to 150 per cent, and more, *ad valorem* ; that the duty on raw iron, an article in universal use, is 112½ per cent ; that the duty on all those cotton manufactures which come under the *minimum* principle of valuation, (and which would be imported annually to the amount of \$10,000,000 or \$15,000,000 under a revenue duty of 20 per cent,) range from 60 to 150 per cent on their true value ; that the duty on salt—an article of universal use, consumed in almost equal quantities by the rich and the poor, and extensively consumed by every farmer, not only for family purposes, but ten times more extensively for his live stock—is 8 cents per bushel, (the article costing only 5 or 6 cents in Liverpool,) equal to 133½ per cent on the original cost."

On the question of constitutional power to impose prohibitory duties—a power which he utterly denies to exist for that object—he lays down a rule for distinguishing revenue duties from protective duties. The rule is this : a revenue duty must be the lowest possible rate that will yield the largest, or the required amount of revenue, for the support of the government. Any duty, however small, is, to a certain extent, a prohibitory duty ; a duty of 10 per cent excludes a considerable amount of imports ; a duty of 20 per cent excludes still more ; and so on, progressively, till the point of total prohibition is reached. "To be more specific," Mr. McDuffie says, "I will assume that, under a duty of 20 per cent on foreign manufactured cottons, the amount of \$20,000,000 would be imported into the United States, on which a duty of 20 per cent would yield a revenue to the government of \$4,000,000 ; and that a duty of 40 per cent would yield precisely the same amount of revenue, and no more, prohibiting half the imports that would come in if the duty were only 20 per

cent ;—now, I ask the Senate, which of these is the true revenue duty—that of 20 per cent, yielding \$4,000,000 of revenue, or that of 40 per cent, yielding the same amount of revenue, and imposing double the amount of burdens on the people? . . . It is self-evident that 20 of the 40 per cent duty could be imposed with no other design, certainly with no other effect, than to levy a contribution of 20 per cent on the mass of the people, to supply a protective bounty of 20 per cent to the manufacturers.”

He then goes on to show that he has conceded too much in supposing 40 per cent would yield as much as 20 per cent duty for revenue ; and he asks what then must be the prohibitory effect of 40, 70, 80, 100, 120, and 180 per cent duty on the immense amount of foreign manufactured cotton goods, which, but for such duties, would be consumed by the middle and poorer classes of the people of the United States. He says : “ A large proportion of the prints and calicoes consumed in the United States, and of which every female of the middle and poorer classes is a consumer, cost, in Manchester, from 6 to 12 cents a yard ; but they are charged with duties of from 75 to 150 per cent by the ingenious contrivance of an artificial and false valuation.”

We now come to a very interesting part of Mr. McDuffie’s argument, that relating to “ discrimination.” After denouncing the tariff law of 1842 as an imposition of unrighteous burdens, not for purposes of revenue, but for taking money out of the pockets of one class of the community and putting into those of another, he says, “ An idea has got abroad—and I am sorry to say that many of the friends of free trade have been deceived and betrayed by it, as many patriot-soldiers have been by the holding out of false colors—an idea has obtained currency, that, although you cannot impose duties for any other purpose but that of revenue, yet you may rightfully impose revenue duties, ‘ with a *wise* discrimination for the protection of domestic manufactures.’ This is part of the new system of tactics to which the manufacturers have found it necessary to resort. They say one thing, and mean another. What do they mean by ‘ a *wise* discrimination ?’ Obviously a discrimination that will exclude imports and *diminish* revenue. ‘ A *wise* discrimination !’ Pray, what is your whole system of revenue—levied, as it is, exclusively from duties on imports—but an enormous discrimination in favor of the manufacturers and their confederates, and against all other classes? . . . I now propose to explain my view of ‘ a *wise* discrimination !’ It seems to be a very prevailing idea that the south insists upon the system of horizontal duties. This is a very great mistake. For myself, I insist that discriminations are proper and necessary, with reference strictly to considerations of revenue. In my opinion, two kinds of discrimination belong properly to our system of revenue. The first is, to impose the highest rate of duties upon those imports which will yield a given amount of revenue with the least burden to the people. The second is, to impose the highest rate of duties upon articles consumed by the wealthy, and the lowest upon those consumed by the poor. The simple application of those two principles, the justice and policy of which would seem to be almost self-evident, would reverse the whole system of your legislation on this subject. For, whereas you lay a duty of 150 per cent on coarse fabrics, and only 30 per cent on the finer qualities, I would impose a duty of 25 per cent on the more costly fabrics, and only 15 upon the inferior qualities. This would be a discrimination that would increase revenue, and at the same time diminish the burdens of the poor,

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instead of increasing the bounties of the rich. The other kind of discrimination, having in view the largest revenue with the least burden, requires that a lower rate of duty should be imposed upon imported commodities which come in competition with domestic manufactures, than upon articles, the like of which are not produced in the United States. Fine silks, fine muslins, tea and coffee, are commodities not produced in the United States. If you impose a duty of 20 per cent on \$20,000,000 of these imports, it will yield \$4,000,000 of revenue, and impose just that burden, and no more, upon the people. But if you impose a duty of 20 per cent on \$20,000,000 of cotton manufactures, you raise the same amount (\$4,000,000) of revenue, and impose a burden of \$12,000,000 on the people. This results from the fact that for every dollar's worth of manufactures you import, there are two dollars' worth of domestic manufactures of which the price is enhanced 20 per cent by the duty imposed upon the foreign. It will be perceived, then, that a revenue of \$4,000,000 raised by duties on fine silks, muslins, tea and coffee, would produce only one-third of the burden which would result from the same amount of revenue raised by duties on cotton manufactures."

The following is a condensed view of some statistics compiled by Mr. McDuffie as an illustration of his argument. The ascertained amount of duty-paying imports, during the first year of the operation of the tariff law of 1842, was \$40,000,000, which, at 40 per cent duty—the average rate of the act—would yield 16,000,000 of revenue. The protected manufactures of the United States amount to \$160,000,000, prohibiting \$80,000,000 of foreign imports, and admitting \$80,000,000 in competition with the domestic manufactures. The 40 per cent duty levied on \$40,000,000, actually imported, yield but \$16,000,000 to the treasury for revenue; while the \$80,000,000 of domestic fabrics, with which the foreign come in competition, are enhanced 40 per cent by the import duty, giving a bounty to the manufacturers on their \$80,000,000 of \$32,000,000, which, with half the revenue on the \$40,000,000 of foreign goods duty paid, the other half (20 per cent) being necessary for revenue, makes \$40,000,000 burden on the people, to put \$16,000,000 in the treasury. But the burden is still greater than that, for the \$80,000,000 of domestic goods, which totally exclude \$80,000,000 of foreign imports, are enhanced at least 10 per cent, making \$8,000,000 additional burden on the people, or, on the whole, \$48,000,000 bounty to manufacturers, only \$16,000,000 of which go into the treasury for revenue.

Mr. McDuffie sustained this calculation by estimates, showing the profits of cotton manufacturers in Massachusetts to be from 35 to 40 per cent, and in other states 29; of iron manufacturers 34 per cent; of salt manufacturers 80 per cent; the grand result of which, he deduces, is that, beyond the necessary revenue for the government, the people of the United States have to pay a tribute of \$32,000,000 to domestic manufacturers.

Mr. McDuffie next takes up the allegation that protection means the protection of domestic against foreign industry; and he argues at much length, and gives numerous illustrations, to prove that protection induces a conflict between one branch of domestic industry and another, and that there can be no competition between foreign industry and domestic industry, where there is only an exchange of labor for labor. He regards the protective policy of the last twenty years as destructive of half the commerce of this country, comparing what it is with what it would be but for

this policy; and yet what is left has to sustain the government, yielding all its revenue as it has done from the beginning; but it is now rapidly verging to extinction, for Europe will not and cannot purchase the exports of this country, if its productions will not be received in exchange. While thus steadily advancing the suicidal policy of destroying commerce, \$9,000,000 is asked to support a navy, the only use for which is the protection of commerce. "Against whom," exclaims Mr. McDuffie, "is a navy required to defend our Atlantic commerce? Against pirates? Against foreign power? Against Great Britain?—for she is the raw-head and bloody-bones always invoked to silence opposition against wasteful expenditure. As a producer of the great staple on which it (commerce) is mainly founded, I declare, with all solemnity, that I regard the Congress of the United States, as it has been constituted for the last twenty years, as more to be dreaded than all the powers of Europe combined, and all the pirates that ever infested the ocean."

With regard to the argument that domestic manufactures furnish a market for agricultural produce, he admits it is good as far as it goes—that is, in the very limited vicinity of manufactories; but he contends, that, what the factories of New England are to the agriculturists of their neighborhood, Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, &c., are to the cotton growers of the south—their markets; distance making no difference. "There is another argument," says Mr. McDuffie, "of which, I believe, the manufacturers keep a constant supply stereotyped for the use of their customers: that high duties upon foreign imports diminish, instead of enhance prices! Now, this is one of those incomprehensible paradoxes which they can successfully address only to the blind faith of their followers. . . . If high duties produce low prices, it would seem to follow that low duties would produce high prices; and the manufacturers should go strenuously for reduction. But if this argument must be gravely met, the answer is as simple as it is conclusive; if the manufacturer cannot obtain remunerating prices with a protection of 20 per cent, he certainly cannot afford to sell at lower prices; but if he can afford to sell at lower prices, he certainly does not require more protection than 20 per cent will afford him."

He next combats a doctrine, promulgated some years ago, and still held up in favor of protection, that it is necessary to relieve this country from the payment of a tribute to foreign nations. It was first broached by Mr. J. Q. Adams, when president, in one of his messages to Congress. Now what is the fact? The tribute is paid to home manufacturers, not to foreigners, for the latter offer to supply their goods at from 20 to 40 per cent cheaper than the home manufacturer, and in exchange, too, for the productions of American labor.

He then adverts to Mr. Clay's recent letter, in which he says, in substance, that in regard to foreign commerce, it is the policy of this country "to sell as much and buy as little as possible." This, Mr. McDuffie said, he read with surprise. It threw the exploded doctrine of the balance of trade quite in the shade. That would certainly be no gainful commerce in which much was to be given and little received. It is precisely what even Alexander Hamilton denominated "a vain attempt to sell everything and buy nothing." As it could not mean to give away our products, it must mean that we are to drain foreign nations of all their gold and silver. That was the policy which impoverished and ruined Spain, after

the discovery of America. This forced import of the precious metals would add not one cent to the substantial wealth of the country. The more of them we accumulated, the less value they would represent here, and the scarcer they became abroad, the less would become the demand then for our exports; and so it would go on until we would become like impoverished Spain, perishing like a miser while gloating on his gold.

Mr. McDuffie next examines the effect of the protective system on the south, the staple exporting states. He computes that some five or six of the northern states enjoy all the bounties of protection, and some eight or nine of the southern states are made tributary to them. Their interests are set at variance by the protective policy. It is the interest of the manufacturing states to prohibit foreign importations; while it is the interest of the southern states to encourage importations, the exchange of which, for their staple exports, is essential to the existence of their industry. Here, then, is direct proof that the protective policy produces a conflict between one branch of domestic industry and another. "When," observes Mr. McDuffie, "you have prohibited the importation of manufactures from Europe, you will have totally destroyed the demand for six-sevenths of our cotton, rendering it utterly valueless. . . . This is a question of life or death to the south and southwest. The crisis approaches when it must be decided. . . . Ever since the tariff of 1828, I have regarded the exporting and slave states as being practically reduced to a state of colonial vassalage to the manufacturing states. . . . Even if you were to come down to a revenue duty, with the discriminations I have stated, it would be the most unequal and oppressive, in its operation on the exporting states, of any revenue system in the world. No other nation ever attempted to throw the whole burden of taxation upon imports. Even in Great Britain, the country which draws most largely from her imports, much the greater portion of her revenue is derived from her various internal taxes, direct and indirect."

But the northern states might push this system to the extremity of reaction against themselves. If the south, instead of letting its staples rot on its hands, should be compelled to go to manufacturing, could it not be done, with her facilities and cheap slave labor, so as to gain not only the home market, but to drive the competition of the north out of foreign markets? Could the north attempt the analogous oppression of imposing a duty of 40 per cent on the manufactures of the south, leaving the similar manufactures of the north duty free? "And yet," observes Mr. McDuffie, "such a proposition, monstrous and revolting as it would be, differs in no substantial particular from the tariff of 1842. It is only necessary to tear off the disguise of this latter measure, to make the likeness manifest. . . . However secure gentlemen may feel, they may find that they stand on a sandy foundation; and I venture to predict that, in five years, the west will be as united in opposition to a protective tariff as the south. This monster of legislative injustice—this mammon of eastern idolatry—can never be worshipped by an enlightened people, when stripped of his disguise; unveil his deformities, and his deluded followers, not less than his victims, will shrink back with abhorrence. I have humbly attempted to perform this office; and now, having done my duty, I leave the consequences to God."

Mr. McDuffie having concluded, Mr. Evans intimated his desire to reply. The further discussion of the subject was, however, postponed to the

succeeding Monday, the 22d. On that day, when it was again called up, Mr. Evans addressed the Senate for two hours, in answer to Mr. McDuffie; but not being able to conclude, at the usual hour of adjournment, the debate was laid over for next day, and when again resumed, Mr. Evans continued his remarks for three hours; having, in the two days, occupied the floor five hours, in one of the best digested and ablest arguments in favor of protection delivered in Congress since the revival of the tariff policy.

The first point Mr. Evans took up to answer, was Mr. McDuffie's objection to the policy of deriving all the revenue of the government from duties on imports. Mr. Evans would not admit that the practice of European governments was a proper guide for us, their circumstances and institutions being different. They, he contended, are deeply involved in debt; have expensive establishments, civil, military, and ecclesiastical; have but one government, each, to maintain; and could not, if they would, derive sufficient revenue for their support from customs. But here the case is altogether different; our debt is trifling; our establishments limited and unexpensive; we have two governments to maintain, the general government and state governments; and we can always derive enough of revenue from imports. He contrasted the aggregate of taxes in England, with the aggregate of taxes in the United States, including the state taxes with those of the general government, to show that the proportion of the whole in England, derived from customs, exceeds the proportion of the whole in the United States, derived from duties on imports. Hence he deduced the corollary, that, even if admissable, the example of European governments is favorable to the practice of the general government of the United States.

Mr. Evans next adverts to Mr. McDuffie's denunciation of the act of 1842, in which he had characterised it as destructive to commerce and revenue. Mr. Evans wholly denies that there is any foundation for such assertions. First, with regard to revenue, he contends that it has largely increased, and is going on progressively increasing. He considers the articles in Mr. McDuffie's schedule of high duties, unimportant for revenue at any time; the aggregate of imports, and not separate articles, being the only true criterion to estimate revenue by. He says, "Every article has relation to every other article. The free importation of some may occasion a very diminished importation of others. A diminished import, or a total prohibition of some, may render necessary or profitable a large import of others, yielding a larger amount of revenue. An act laying duties, therefore, must be regarded as a whole, and not in insulated and detached parts. The true rule would seem to be so to graduate and adjust the duties upon the various descriptions of articles imported, that, upon the whole mass, and not upon each separate parcel, the largest amount of revenue may be derived."

In discussing this point, Mr. Evans develops the whole theory of protection; and, in doing so, he illustrates his argument so very elaborately, that it would take many pages to give even a condensed view of his positions. From the whole, however, we derive the fact, that the key-stone on which depends the stability of the arch, is, that legislation can give LABOR the means wherewith to become the purchaser and consumer of duty-paying imports, and, consequently, of increasing revenue, while adding to its own enjoyments. We reserve our examination of this princi-

ple for our general review of the debate. Meantime, let us see what Mr. Evans says on this point. He asks, "Does the honorable senator (Mr. McDuffie) suppose that his bill, if it should become a law, will yield a larger amount of revenue than the act of 1842? He appears to take it as proven that such will be the case, when he has shown that, under its provisions, some of the articles, separately considered, will furnish more than they do now. Possibly, under his bill, several descriptions of merchandise may be imported more extensively than they are at present, and may yield more revenue than they now yield. But might they not exclude other importations which yield us more still? Might they not diminish consumption by diminishing the ability of the people to buy? Revenue is not derived from importation, merely. There must be consumption, also. If not consumed, foreign fabrics will cease to be imported, and then revenue must cease also. Whatever stimulates consumption, or, which is the same thing, whatever adds to the ability of the people of the country to purchase, adds to the importations, and adds to the revenue. Suppose, that by reason of high duties, or by direct prohibition, you exclude foreign fabrics from the country, which, under a moderate duty would yield \$5,000 or \$10,000 to the revenue, do you necessarily impair the revenue to that extent? Not if, by reason of such exclusion, you call into exercise American industry for the supply of the article, to such an extent as to enable hundreds or thousands of our people, by the profitable employment they obtain, to become purchasers and consumers of other commodities, necessities, and luxuries, which they could not otherwise have enjoyed, and upon which an equal or greater amount of revenue is collected than there would have been upon the articles thus excluded. The entire prohibition of one commodity, or of several, which would furnish some revenue, may indeed be ultimately beneficial to the treasury. This is the case whenever the exclusion of it gives occasion or creates a demand for an enlarged importation of other commodities, upon which a higher duty is exacted. This is experience. Gentlemen are often quite at a loss to comprehend how it is, that we expect foreign imports to increase, when additional duties have been imposed upon them. It is because we look to the aggregate of the merchandise imported. Particular descriptions of goods may fall off, some may be prohibited entirely, but the whole mass is increased. The consumption of the country will always be in proportion to its ability to purchase. Whenever you advance industry, and give labor employment which it had not before—when you enable laborers to clothe themselves and their families better than they did before, and obtain more of the necessities and comforts of life, and especially to become consumers of luxuries to which they were strangers, you enlarge the number of consumers of dutiable imports—you make a new class which did not exist before, and you necessarily increase the imports and increase the revenue."

These, Mr. Evans relies upon as facts and accumulated experience, in conformity with Bacon's inductive proofs of establishing leading truths; while he accords to his opponent, Mr. McDuffie, all the advantages of the ancient scholastic system of first imagining a speculative theory, and then bending facts to fit it, but, if refractory, rejecting them, or postponing them till futurity discovers their conformity. The following are the inductive facts which he arrays in contradiction of the newspaper assertions, that the revenue of the government under the pressure of the tariff law of 1842

is declining, the public debt increasing, and that a resort to other taxes will be necessary to supply the treasury, if that law is not speedily modified. He says the receipts of the treasury from the imports of 1842 were about \$13,000,000, the rate of duty being 23 per cent. The receipts in, 1843, were \$17,000,000, the average rate of duty being 34 per cent. "What," he asks, "is the result of the comparison? We have added over \$4,000,000 to the revenue. How does it bear on the honorable senator's doctrine that low duties increase the revenue? A rate of 23 per cent, which is somewhat above the point arrived at by the senator, yielded but \$13,000,000, while a rate of 34 per cent yielded \$17,000,000. Which is the revenue point? Can any thing be plainer than that the act of 1842 has occasioned no actual diminution of revenue? And, in my judgment, it is equally plain that it has added \$4,000,000 to it."

As to the relative imports, he refers to a recent treasury report to show that the amount of imports for the commercial year to 30th September, 1843, was about \$88,000,000, being an admitted falling off of \$10,000,000 or \$12,000,000 from 1842. This falling off he accounts for as occasioned by general prostration of business, and the uncertainty as to any tariff law, which hung over the action of Congress. Since, however, the act went into operation, the imports have been progressively increasing, according to the treasury report, which gives the following table:—

	Dutiable imports.	Gross duties.
4th quarter of 1842.....	\$7,228,502	\$2,566,438
1st " 1843.....	10,441,567	3,391,876
2d " 1843.....	11,491,228	4,376,356
3d " 1843.....	19,634,059	6,659,357
Total.....	\$48,795,356	\$16,994,027

The free articles imported declined as the dutiable articles increased; so that, in the third quarter of 1843, they amounted only to \$4,896,514, the aggregate of the year being \$40,470,755—the average of the four quarters, each \$10,117,688; the quarter having the largest amount of dutiable imports, giving the smallest amount of free imports, or not half the average. "How," Mr. Evans asks, "could this happen, if the act of 1842 had such disastrous operation upon the revenue, and upon the imports from which the revenue is derived?—the free list diminishing, the dutiable increasing."

Mr. Evans then goes on to prove the flourishing condition of the revenue, and to set at rest the apprehensions of the secretary of the treasury that there will be a deficiency of \$4,000,000 at the end of the current fiscal year. He does not think it necessary to expend within the year anything like the sum estimated by the secretary of the treasury; and he shows various ways in which the secretary may avoid having any deficit. But, independent of these, he differs altogether from the secretary, as to his estimate of probable revenue; which is, for the quarter just closed, \$3,100,000, for the current quarter \$4,600,000, and for the last quarter \$3,600,000. Now, the past quarter, Mr. Evans's estimate considerably exceeded what the secretary supposed; the current quarter he is satisfied will go beyond the secretary's estimate, at least \$1,500,000—but say \$1,000,000, and as much more for the last quarter. The excess on the secretary's estimates will be between \$2,000,000 and \$3,000,000, quite enough, with unexpended balances of appropriations and outstanding war-

rants, to prevent any deficiency, even if the expenditure must be as large as anticipated.

Mr. Evans next proceeds to examine the probable condition of the treasury for the fiscal year to 30th June, 1845. The estimates of the secretary of the treasury are, that the expenditures of the year will be \$26,877,059; including the expected appropriations of Congress, \$22,000,000. Now, Mr. Evans sees very little indications in the House of Representatives, that the appropriations will be allowed to exceed \$15,000,000 or \$16,000,000, which will be \$6,000,000 or \$7,000,000 less than the secretary of the treasury estimates. Here would be a considerable saving; but, independent of that, the secretary of the treasury underrates the probable receipts from customs. He estimates them at \$20,000,000. Mr. Evans says he will be greatly surprised if they do not exceed \$23,000,000. Practical and intelligent merchants anticipate that the customs will yield from \$25,000,000 to \$26,000,000. "Looking," observes Mr. Evans, "to the present condition of affairs—to the advancing prosperity of the country, as exhibited in increasing commerce, in the appreciating value of real estate in the commercial cities, in the formation of new mercantile firms, in the restored confidence which now exists, in the stimulus given to enterprise and industry—looking at all these evidences of general improvement, I do not know that their expectations are very extravagant. . . . To give a revenue of \$23,000,000 it is only necessary to import \$64,000,000 or \$65,000,000 of dutiable merchandise. We have often imported much more than that when the rate of duties was higher than at present. And now, when there is increased prosperity, when money is abundant, confidence restored, enterprises enlarged, all branches of business starting into fresh life and vigor—what reason is there to expect we shall not be able to import from \$60,000,000 to \$70,000,000 as well as in times past? Indeed, I think we may very safely expect the imports of the year will amount to \$100,000,000. The proportion of dutiable imports, as indicated in the returns of the third quarter of last year, is something over four-fifths of the whole; and if the same proportion should continue, which I hardly expect, it would give an import of over \$80,000,000 dutiable, yielding a revenue of \$28,000,000."

Mr. Evans next takes in hand Mr. McDuffie's plan of "discrimination," which, he says, amounts to this, that it is to be confined to two objects: for the benefit of the revenue, and for the benefit of the poor. He complains that there is none for the manufacturers or home industry. Mr. Evans says he does not object to discrimination for purposes of revenue; but he does, to Mr. McDuffie's mode of applying it, particularly, with regard to laying the highest duties on imports coming in competition with domestic productions, and the heaviest on those of which we produce none. Mr. Evans does not agree with Mr. McDuffie that revenue, and discrimination in favor of home manufactures, are incompatible. He thinks, on the contrary, that the first thing to be done to produce revenue, is to favor consumption by giving the people the ability to buy imports; therefore, discrimination to help revenue, must help consumption. Then, as to Mr. McDuffie's proposition to discriminate in favor of the poor, Mr. Evans thinks it far better to legislate so as to have no poor at all. He says, legislate to abolish poverty by doing away with the causes of it. "Improve," he says, "the condition of your people; give them wherewith to go to work; give them employment; stimulate and protect their in-

dustry; let them acquire competency and wealth. That is the only relief necessary or desirable to give them. Merely to relieve them from a burden, is like indiscriminate charity—their wants are perpetually returning. How much better is it to enable them to relieve themselves by their own industry? Charity is not what the people of this country want, or ought to want. They want their legislation adapted to their habits of enterprise, industry, and independence. There is no want of proneness in our people to indulge in extravagance and luxury, whenever they are able to do so, and often when they are not. Give them the ability to purchase articles yielding revenue, and they will assuredly purchase them.”

Mr. Evans then adverts to the question of commerce, and he takes issue at once with Mr. McDuffie on his assertion that there is any decline in the foreign commerce of the United States. He insists that the proofs he has adduced of improvement in the revenue and of increasing imports, put to flight the notion that half our commerce is destroyed and the other half destined soon to follow. He treats, however, the amount of foreign commerce, compared with internal commerce, as insignificant, though, as far as it goes, he is willing to join in all the eulogies Mr. McDuffie pronounces upon it as a bond of amity among nations, a harbinger of civilization, and nursery for naval defence. Our internal commerce he estimates at \$1,000,000,000; our external commerce at little more than a tenth of that sum. He thinks it vastly more important to protect and foster this immense internal commerce and strengthen the bonds of amity among our own states, than to give all our attention to our foreign commerce and amicable relations with foreign nations. “But,” he asks, “what proof is there that half of our foreign commerce is struck down? Who complains? Neither extensive merchants, importers, ship-owners, nor navigators. On the contrary, there are evidences of renewed enterprise in foreign trade, new ships are being built, freights are improving, and great activity exists in commercial pursuits.”

Next, as to Mr. McDuffie's position that the high duties imposed by the act of 1842, by diminishing imports, in the same ratio diminish exports, injuriously curtailing the foreign demand for our staple productions; Mr. Evans insists that it is a gratuitous assumption, for, says he, experience is adverse to the position. In proof of this, he quotes a report submitted to Congress by the secretary of the treasury at the beginning of the session, showing the imports since 1821, divided into periods corresponding with the changes of tariff. For the sake of brevity, we throw Mr. Evans's illustration into tabular form:—

No. of years.	Period.	Am't of imports.	Average per year.	Av. rate of duty.
4	From 1821 to 1824,.....	\$264,960,000	\$66,000,000	34 per cent.
4	“ 1825 to 1828,.....	301,550,000	75,000,000	38 “
4	“ 1829 to 1832,.....	297,330,000	74,330,000	41 “
9	“ 1833 to 1841,.....	631,000,000	71,000,000	31 “
1	1842,.....	69,500,000	69,500,000	23 “

The inferences he draws from this table, are, that the increase of duties by the tariff law of 1824, was accompanied by increased importations; that the great rise of duties by the high tariff of 1828, made scarcely any reduction in the amount of imports; that, under the reducing duties of the compromise act, importations fell off \$3,000,000 in the average; and that at the lowest rate of duty, 23 per cent, in 1842, the imports fell down to \$69,500,000. He admits, however, that in 1843, the imports fell still lower by nearly 29 per cent, coming down to \$48,750,000; but this he

attributes to causes already adverted to, and not to the tariff law of 1842. He is satisfied it could not be that act, because the free list articles fell off at the same time 34 per cent—still more than the dutiable articles.

Mr. Evans treats as a mere theoretical fallacy, the idea advanced by Mr. McDuffie, that duties not only enhance prices, but bring up all the domestic articles of the kind thus taxed, to the standard of the enhanced price of the imported articles. He says, experience is directly against this theory. He relies upon the tests of all tariff acts hitherto passed, to prove that they generally have occasioned a decline of prices. The way he accounts for it is this:—prices depend on supply and demand; if the supply is short of the demand, the holders can put on more profits and make prices high; if the demand is short of the supply, the holders of goods, anxious to sell, sacrifice some of their profits, and reduce prices; if an increase of duty is about to be added to the tariff, importers anticipate it, by increased supplies, in advance; when the duty comes into operation, the home manufacturers expecting to have the market to themselves, make a larger stock of their goods, which, coming into the market with the over supply of the importers, overreach the demand, and prices fall; by the time this overstock is taken off, more capitalists have embarked in manufactures, on the faith of protection, and they increase the supply; which is further increased by the stimulus to increased exertion given to those in business before, by the security of the market; and the home competition itself, conduces to both an over supply and reduction of prices to the lowest rate consistent with fair profits in business; prices thus become more steady and reasonable than when subject to the caprice of importers. As an illustration of his argument, that the additional duty, while it puts more money in the treasury, cheapens prices, Mr. Evans gives an instance of its effect upon crockeryware. He says the scale of prices in Liverpool was fixed in 1814; since which, till the passage of our late tariff law, notwithstanding improvements and cheaper modes of manufacturing, it was not altered, but gradually a practice obtained of making large discounts on this scale of prices. In 1842 the discount was 45 per cent; so that, an American merchant buying to the amount by the scale of \$100, was allowed 45 per cent discount, and he had to pay \$55, which with 20 per cent duty, made the cost hence \$66. But, since the act of 1842 went into operation, the discount in Liverpool has been altered to 50 per cent, so that, the same merchant, buying now, to the value by the scale of \$100, has to pay \$50, which, with 30 per cent duty makes \$65, being \$1 less than in 1842, although \$4 more has been added to the revenue.

At length Mr. Evans comes to the very obvious inquiry, if protective duties do not add to prices, but on the contrary reduce them, why does the manufacturer require any protection? Is it any benefit to him? Mr. Evans says, "certainly it is; and in this way: he obtains the supply of the market; *he* sells, in preference to the foreign manufacturer; *his* goods are consumed, which they would not otherwise be, unless at prices he could not afford to sell for. . . . Suppose the consumption of the country requires 100 bales or any other given quantity. We can supply the whole—say at 5 cents a yard. England can do the same. If our manufacturers send their 100 bales into market, and the English send their 100 bales also, it is evident you have double the quantity which is wanted. The price must decline to 4 cents or 3 cents a yard. It is a losing business as well to them as to us. Who can endure this state of things longest? A

country where labor is cheap, or where it is dear? Where money and capital abound, or where they are comparatively scarce? Where the rate of interest is 2 per cent, or where it is 6 or 7 per cent? The result is inevitable. Our manufacturers cannot stand the competition, and must be destroyed. What happens then? The foreign producer has the market exclusively to himself. Prices advance and he takes good care to indemnify himself for the losses he has sustained, while engaged in the process of breaking down our establishments. . . . What are the American manufacturers thus thrown out of employment to do? . . . Where is the capital liberated by the operation, if not destroyed, to be employed? But above all, where is the labor to go? . . . It will be driven to increase the already excessive productions of agriculture, which are now so largely beyond the demand for them, that prices are exceedingly depressed."

Mr. Evans here takes up Mr. McDuffie's assumption that \$40,000,000 more would be imported if the protective duty was taken off; and asks, who would be to consume these \$40,000,000? Not the farmers, he says, for they would be impoverished by the loss of their market to the home manufacturers; nor would the foreign manufacturers be so benefited as to increase the consumption of raw cotton beyond the supply lost to the home market broken up. Mr. Evans thinks the consumers dependant on home manufactures exceedingly underrated by Mr. McDuffie; and he enumerates the various trades at which they are employed, for the purpose of showing that they form a large population in themselves, continually augmenting the wealth of the country. And he adds, "The benefit of the policy (protection) is not for the few but for the many. It puts labor in motion. It employs the many. What is most wanted and most necessary for a nation ambitious of attaining power, and wealth, and happiness, is profitable employment for its people."

Mr. Evans denies that manufacturers have made, or are making, large profits. He says the error into which Mr. McDuffie has fallen in this respect arises from taking his data from the census and newspaper paragraphs. He says that the profits of the capital vested in cotton factories from the commencement of the business in this country to the present time, have not averaged 6 per cent; and even now, they do not reach 12 per cent. He assumes that statements made about large profits, are based on peculiar cases, such as when the property, buildings, machinery, &c., of bankrupts, have been sold for a quarter of their cost; and, when in successful operation with this quarter capital, dividends are struck on it, instead of on the original cost. Also in cases where the profits arise from favorable speculations, forming no part of the business of manufacture.

Mr. Evans next takes Spackman's Statistics of Great Britain, to show that, of her enormous amount of manufactures (\$865,000,000) she consumes, herself, three-fourths. Of \$260,000,000 of cotton manufactures, she consumes \$140,000,000. And yet her imports are only \$320,000,000 from all parts of the world; of which, raw cotton form only 11 per cent, or \$36,000,000. His argument from this data, is, that if her \$860,000,000 of manufactures, require only \$36,000,000 of our products, an addition of \$40,000,000 to her manufactures would, proportionably, only require \$1,666,000 more of our exports. Or, making the calculation as to her \$260,000,000 of cotton manufactures; the addition of \$40,000,000 for our market, would create a demand for only \$5,000,000 of the raw export from us—taking \$35,000,000 of her labor for \$5,000,000 of our labor.

As to the charge that the act of 1842 is peculiarly unjust and injurious to the exporting states of the south, Mr. Evans maintains, that it can operate only in one of two ways; either by enhancing the price of what they buy, or diminishing the price of what they sell. He says he has already disposed of the first, by showing that the tendency of the act of 1842 has been to diminish the prices of those articles consumed by the south; and the price currents contradict the other, for the New Orleans price current for January of this year, contrasted with that of January, 1843, shows that the rise in the price of cotton has been from 75 to 80 per cent on the inferior qualities, 40 to 50 per cent on the middling, and 20 to 30 per cent on the best. He was just informed that some of the manufacturers in Massachusetts are paying 50 per cent more than they paid last year; so that, it would not be extraordinary if there should be a rise in the price of the manufactured fabrics. There had been also a rise, though not to the same extent, on tobacco. How then, he asks, can the act 1842 be called injurious to the south?

He considers it in vain for the south to say, all she wants is to be let alone, to pursue her own interests and policy in her own way. This cannot, in Mr. Evans's judgment, be allowed. The southern states, he says, must abide by the terms on which they entered the Union. They cannot be allowed to pursue their own policy to the detriment of other states. Their grievances originate at home—in the excessive prices of former years, which, the senator from South Carolina now wants to bring about again—leading to over production, wild speculations in lands, slaves, and all sorts of extravagances. The older and worn out states cannot stand the competition with the younger and more fertile states; these are no inconsiderable causes of the discontent of the south. If the old southern states cannot stand this competition they must go to other sources of industry than growing cotton.

As to the alleged violation of the compromise act, Mr. Evans denies that the statute book gives any evidence of a *compromise* or an obligation more binding in relation to the act of 1833, than to any other law. It was then to be repealed or modified as circumstances required. What, he asks, was the last Congress to do? It found the revenue insufficient and declining, public credit prostrate, business at a stand, distress spreading, and general consternation pervading the country. It was their duty to do something for the relief of the country. They passed the tariff law of 1842, and whether it was the effect of that law or not, what had been predicted of it, came to pass; the revenue is restored, commerce revived, public credit placed on a firm foundation, the value of labor and property enhanced, confidence revived, and the cloud of dismay has disappeared.

In the foregoing sketch (very brief, no doubt,) of a speech which took five hours in the delivery, we necessarily have been compelled to pass over many points of argument and various illustrations which, if our space permitted, we would willingly present to our readers; but, we trust we have preserved enough of the main doctrine of protection to give a fair and candid view of its merits, as put forward with all the acknowledged ability of one of the most skilful and adroit debaters in the United States Senate.

Next day, Wednesday, 24th January, the general orders brought up the subject again, as the unfinished business; but Mr. Berrien rose to a point of order, which was, whether the discussion could proceed without

disposing of the question of jurisdiction. The remainder of the day's sitting was devoted to the consideration of this point; but, finally, it terminated in a concession that it was due to Mr. McDuffie to let him have an opportunity of answering Mr. Evans. Accordingly, by general assent, Monday, the 29th, was appointed for that purpose. When the subject was then resumed, Mr. McDuffie spoke for two hours in reply to Mr. Evans. In this reply, we find the following arguments are the most prominent and striking:—

Mr. McDuffie defines the inductive process of reasoning as laid down by Lord Bacon; and regrets that, while Mr. Evans professed to follow that method, he had neglected to do so, particularly with regard to the great elements of political economy established by the inductive process. Adam Smith, he says, who so successfully brought that process to bear on fundamental principles of political economy, had demonstrated that labor is at once the only source and the true measure of all those values which constitute individual or national wealth. Labor, then, is the source and measure of wealth. "This truth," observes Mr. McDuffie, "thoroughly realized in all its bearings, shows the impotence and folly of all those acts of legerdemain and contrivances of legislation, by which mankind have been deluded, and oppressed, and impoverished, from the days of the alchemists, who proposed to convert all metals into gold, to those of the restrictionists who now, and here, gravely propose to fetter the arm of labor, in order to render it more productive! And I could not but be struck with it at the time, as a singular coincidence, that, in juxtaposition with his commendation of Lord Bacon's system of reasoning, the senator should have laid it down as his own theory, that the true mode of relieving the poor was, not by the homely and common-sense process of reducing their taxes—for that, he said, would be 'indiscriminate charity'—but by the more compendious process of 'abolishing poverty.' Now, I must be excused for saying that this looks very much like legislative conjuration—an art certainly not derived from the *Novum Organum* of Francis Bacon, but rather from the crucible of Roger Bacon, the alchemist. It proposes to exorcise the phantom of poverty by a mere form of cabalistic words; as if the senator should introduce a bill, providing 'that, from and after the 1st day of July next, poverty be, and the same is hereby, abolished throughout the United States of America.' These are words of fair promise, but as impotent as they are fair. Poverty is no phantom, but a sad reality, which you can no more banish by legislative incantation, than Glendower could 'call up spirits from the vasty deep.' But, says the senator, impose high taxes, and give the people the means to pay them. Let me tell you, that, as a legislature, we have nothing to give, for we have not yet discovered the philosopher's stone. We are as poor as a church mouse. We have no *creative* power by which we can produce wealth, even to the amount of a blade of grass or grain of corn. That power belongs exclusively, under the blessing of God, to human labor. And it is the great and only legitimate function of government to secure to the people the free use and enjoyment of the products of that labor, undiminished by any burdens not absolutely necessary to support the government under an economical administration. But the senator affirms (and it is the whole burden of his argument) that the imposition of high taxes does, of itself, by some mysterious process which he has not disclosed, furnish the people not only with the means of paying those taxes, but also of ris-

ing from poverty to wealth. This, most assuredly, is a new theory of national wealth, now for the first time promulgated, and certainly not the offspring of the inductive system of philosophizing. Allow me, in a few words, to unveil the whole mystery. When the senator speaks of giving the *people* the means of paying taxes, he means the protected manufacturers and the people they employ, amounting to some 150,000, who receive a bounty, equal to the rate of the tax, upon the whole annual amount of their productions. And this bounty is raised by an equal amount of burdens imposed upon all the other classes of the people, amounting in number to 17,000,000; the whole operation confirming the great truth which I have so often repeated, that government cannot, in the very nature of things, give either money, high wages, or high profits, or any thing else, to one man, or one class of men, which it does not first take from another. But another of the elementary principles deduced by Adam Smith from common sense, and the general experience of mankind, was this: that it is the true interest of every man in a social state, to *buy* such commodities as it would cost him more labor to *make* than to *purchase*. For example: that, instead of every man attempting to unite in himself the various callings of farmer, hatter, shoemaker, tailor, blacksmith, and carpenter, under the absurd idea of being more independent by making everything at *home*, true policy dictates that these occupations should be separately pursued by each, and the productions of their several vocations exchanged for each other; that, in this way, each producing the commodity to which his means and capacity are best adapted, the aggregate result of their whole labor will be double the amount that could have been produced if each one had produced everything and bought nothing. By a very natural and obvious step in the process of inductive reasoning, these principles are extended to the members of the great society of nations. And it was, therefore, laid down as the very foundation of the philosophy of commerce, that it is the true policy of all nations to exchange, without restriction, their mutual surplus productions, each giving what it can produce cheapest, and receiving what it would cost more to produce at home than purchase abroad. And from all this it results as a corollary, that the best mode of promoting individual and national wealth, is for every individual, and every nation, to sell where they can get the highest price, and buy where they can buy cheapest."

Mr. McDuffie deduces from Mr. Evans's whole argument, two positions: first, that it is better to pay a high price for manufactures made at home, than a low price for those made abroad; second, that a high rate of duty on imports reduces their price, and a low rate enhances it. This, analyzed, Mr. McDuffie says, is to suppose we could throw upon foreign nations the burden of our taxation; but, if that could be done at all, two could play the same game, and foreign nations could in return throw the burden of their taxation on us. This would be a game in which the motto of both parties would be, "the hardest fend off;" and we should find in the end, as they say somewhere, that "the longest pole would knock down the persimmon." But nations do not possess this power of taxing each other; if they did it would soon end in the destruction of all commerce, and a fearful retrograde in the march of civilization. And, hence, the fact being obvious that our taxation must be raised off our own people, the question is, where the burden ultimately rests. Duties, continues Mr. McDuffie, are paid in the first instance by the importing mer-

chant; but as he is free to import or not, as his interest dictates, he would instantly cease to import if he could not indemnify himself for the duty paid; the duty then is transferred from him, in the price, to the retail merchant, who, in like manner, transfers it to the consumer, who finally has to pay it in the retail price, with all its accumulated interest. Whether it is the consumer or domestic producer that is considered as bearing the burden of protective duties, can be of no consequence, for, in either case, the result is the same. The class of imports upon which these duties are imposed, are exclusively paid for by the productions of the exporting states; and must, therefore, be regarded as the annual income of those states. Although they do not consume the whole of these imports, they consume an aggregate of imports and protected home-made goods, enhanced in price, by the import duties, considerably larger than the whole amount of these imports.

In relation to Mr. Evans's inquiry, where consumers are to be found for \$40,000,000 more of imports? Mr. McDuffie retorts upon him his own adage, "give the people the means to consume and they will consume;" and, he says, the exporting states will consume them, because they will be enabled to pay for them; they can do it, too, with the proud consciousness of spending what is their own, derived from no monopoly, but from the blessing of God and their own labor. A reduction of duties to 20 per cent, 20 being taken off, not only adds so much to the means of consumption, but four times as much in respect to the whole country, because it takes off the enhanced price given by the indirect bounty to home manufactures. So that, by taking off 20 per cent of the present duty, the means of additional consumption would be given to the people of the United States amounting to \$10,000,000.

Mr. McDuffie next examines the assertion made by Mr. Evans, that the tariff of 1842 had diminished the price of manufactures, and enhanced the price of raw cotton. Mr. McDuffie says the senator might as well attribute the recent rise in the price current of the cotton market in New Orleans to icebergs floating in the ocean, or meteors falling from the heavens, as to the tariff of 1842. He then proceeds to show that the falling off in the crop of cotton to supply the market abroad—the crop of 1842 having been 2,400,000 bales, while that of 1843 was but 1,800,000, (in his opinion only 1,600,000,) cotemporaneous with the opening of trade with China, concurred in having that effect on the market invariably resulting from a great change in the relation of supply and demand—a change quite sufficient, on the most natural and obvious grounds, to account for a rise of price even amounting to \$12 per hundred on raw cotton. "The just conclusion," adds Mr. McDuffie, "is, not that the act of 1842 has raised the price of cotton from \$8 to \$10 a hundred, but that it has prevented it from going up to \$12. Such is a fair sample of those threadbare sophisms which the manufacturers put off on their followers as *facts*. Yes, *facts*; and these are the only articles that the manufacturers can produce without protection, bidding defiance to all competition."

As to the alleged fall in the price of manufactures, produced by the tariff of 1842, Mr. McDuffie quoted a detailed statement showing that the prices of various manufactures have risen on an average 25 per cent since the passage of the act, and some of them as much as 60 per cent. He admits that Mr. Evans explained his meaning to be, that prices fell at *first*, but have since risen in consequence of the general prosperity pro-

duced by the act of 1842. But this explanation overthrows the theory and alleged "*fact*," that high duties reduce prices. Now, Mr. McDuffie accounts for the fall of prices, at first, in the following way, which, he says, is a secret not as generally known as it ought to be: the tariff was concocted by a set of speculating manufacturers, who infested the lobbies and committee-rooms of Congress, each having his separate scheme for making Congress legislate him into a fortune. Each in his turn pulled out of his pocket a list of the articles he was prepared to make to any extent, if Congress would only compel the people to pay him his own price for them. The calico-printer would say, I can get along with duties from 40 to 160 per cent, if you will place the highest rates on the coarsest fabrics. The manufacturer of cotton cords, velvets, fustians, and similar articles would say, if you will put 50 per cent to the duties imposed by the tariff of 1828, I can supply the wants of the country. And in like manner every sort of manufacture—window-glass, agricultural implements, wood-screws, and even brass pins—were foisted into this "act providing revenue," under rates of duty which are totally prohibitory. But, inquires Mr. McDuffie, what became of the lobby-patriots and financiers, as soon as the act passed? They hastened home to realize the fruits of their contrivances, but were caught in their own trap by producing an overstock for the market. As a natural result, prices for a short time declined, and, though some of the more prudent made large fortunes, others were ruined.

Mr. McDuffie next comes to one of the main pillars of Mr. Evans's argument, that the reviving trade and prosperity of the country is due to the tariff act. "Now," observes Mr. McDuffie, "I had thought that if there was any one opinion in which all statesmen and men of business would concur, it was, that the revival of trade and prosperity now in progress was owing to the restoration of our currency—furnishing a substantial basis for all the operations of trade—and the recovery of the country from the tremendous reaction which unavoidably resulted from an inflated currency, and the wild spirit of speculation to which it gave rise among all classes. But, while the senator from Maine contends that the tariff of 1842 has reduced prices, he in the next breath contends not the less earnestly that the high duties imposed by the act are necessary to save the domestic manufacturers from the competition of their foreign rivals. By what appears to me an incomprehensible confusion of ideas, he maintains that high duties reduce prices by increasing competition! Why, sir, the very genius of paradox can go no further. But, says the senator, the competition of our own manufacturers will reduce profits to the general average level. To what average level? To the average level of profits in England, where the senator himself told us that the interest of money was 2½ per cent, whereas it is 7 here, and the wages of labor equally disproportionate? To the average of the profits of the farmer and cotton-planter, the latter of which, I know, does not exceed 5 per cent, and I understand the former is still less? Not at all, sir. The senator means the average profits of those pampered monopolists themselves, whose dividends are swelled up to 12, 20, 35, and even 40 per cent, by forced contributions, extorted from the ill-paid labor of all other classes."

Mr. McDuffie thinks Mr. Evans asks, in a tone of offended patriotism, "when you send your cotton abroad to be exchanged for foreign manufactures, do you not employ *foreign* labor?" To which Mr. McDuffie replies

by asking, "when we employ the labor of Great Britain, France, and Germany, to manufacture what we require, do they not employ our labor to at least the same extent, in producing the staples of exportation? Is not commerce, in its very nature, an exchange of labor as well as of commodities, each party gaining by the exchange? The cheaper the foreign labor we employ, the more profitable is our foreign commerce—and this is the grievance of which the manufacturers complain!"

Mr. McDuffie next takes in hand Mr. Evans's argument that the price of the export staples will not be reduced by excluding the exchanges usually received for them, the price being governed by the law of supply and demand, the capacity of foreign countries to consume our staples fixing their demand for them. While Mr. McDuffie admits the last branch of the proposition as sound philosophy, he deduces from it a conclusion precisely the opposite of that drawn by Mr. Evans. He contends that the capacity of foreign countries to consume our staples is limited by their means of paying for them. Now, these means are precisely those manufactures which this protective policy proposes to exclude. On this ground he assumes that this anti-commercial policy has excluded \$50,000,000 of foreign imports, precluding a co-extensive demand for our staple exports. Looking to raw cotton as the cheapest material in the world for general clothing, and its recent introduction in France, Germany, continental Europe, and particularly into China, he says, the imagination can scarcely conceive the extent of the demand which would be created for this great staple by throwing off from our commerce the incubus of the protective policy. The people of Great Britain now consume cotton manufactures to the annual amount of \$150,000,000; and if the other nations of Europe would consume anything like the same proportion, all that vast region extending on the Atlantic and the Gulf of Mexico from the Potomac to the Rio del Norte, would not be adequate to supply the demand. "This bright vision, however," observes Mr McDuffie, "can be realized only by a system of unshackled exchanges with foreign nations. Leave trade to regulate itself, industry to select its own pursuits, and commerce to find out its own channels, and we shall never have any complaint of overproduction, to which the senator is pleased to ascribe the decay of our prosperity in the exporting states. No, sir; there can scarcely occur such a thing as over-production under a system of free trade. This is always the offspring of legislative restrictions, damming up the natural currents of trade. There cannot be greater absurdity than to talk about over-production, when there is a just equilibrium between the various productions of industry, which free trade only can maintain. Such an idea would imply that a country can have too great an abundance of all the necessities and comforts of life!"

Having thus answered Mr. Evans in detail, Mr. McDuffie proceeds to review the general spirit and bearing of his arguments, taken as a whole, which, he says, turn upon the assumption that the prosperity of the country means the prosperity of the manufacturers; that domestic industry means manufacturing industry; that the only branch of domestic industry which adds to the national wealth, is that which requires a perpetual system of government bounties to sustain it; and, finally, that the taxes imposed upon all other classes to raise these indirect bounties, are not burdens, but national blessings! "These," observes Mr. McDuffie, "certainly are bold assumptions; but they are the natural offspring of despotic

power under all its forms. When Napoleon Bonaparte was at the height of his imperial greatness, he exclaimed, in the language of infatuated despotism, 'I am the state.' And so these great manufacturing monopolists, feeling that they control the powers of this government, so as to make all other interests of the country subservient and tributary to their own, stand up in their own right and that of some 200,000 or 300,000 operatives, and, in effect, exclaim, 'We are the United States!'"

Mr. McDuffie, in tracing the causes of this state of things, considers this country peculiarly, if not unfortunately circumstanced, with regard to the question of free trade. England, with a dense population and small territory, has homogeneous interests, and would enjoy free trade but for a landed interest, held principally by an hereditary aristocracy. Yet there the hand of oppression, laid upon any of the great interests of commerce or manufactures, would produce an instant vibration from one extremity of the country to the other. "But we," observes Mr. McDuffie, "have a common government, extending over a continent, and embracing not only various interests, but *conflicting* interests, separated by geographical lines and distinguished by different civil institutions. Our ancestors, aware of this, wisely limited the powers conferred upon this government to our foreign relations, to the means of protecting our rights against the aggressions of other countries, and to 'the regulation of foreign commerce,' with a view to preserve, extend, and nourish it, and not to cripple or destroy it. And this was the avowed purpose for which the first federal convention was called at Annapolis. But, sir, when the powers of this government are perverted from their legitimate objects to the 'regulation of the whole industry of the country'—when you attempt to prescribe the same law for promoting interests that are strictly antagonist, so far as they are affected by that law, you attempt what, in the nature of things, is impossible. God himself has adopted no such rule in the government of the world. His laws are wisely adapted to the various climates and latitudes of the earth; and it would be well if this government, extending over so many sovereign states and jarring interests, would imitate this divine example. But when you apply this Procrustean system to all the interests of the country, stretching one and mutilating another, until they come up to the standard measure of legislative wisdom, how absurd is it to say (as it is the fashion of the manufacturers to say) 'the interests of the farmers, the planters, and the manufacturers of the east, north, south, and west, are all the same?' To be sure, it is by no natural law of trade, but by your unjust and partial legislation, that they are brought into conflict; but the conflict is not the less real on that account. If the great staples of the south and west were equally diffused over the north and east, and the manufactures of the latter, in like manner, diffused over the former, do you suppose this system would stand for a single year? I do not believe it would command ten votes in this body. Or, consider this whole country, with its now conflicting interests, as an estate belonging to a single proprietor, would these interests stand in conflict any longer? Would such a proprietor have the consummate folly to cut off the imports of foreign manufactures from one branch of his estate, that he might supply their place, at an increased cost of 40 per cent, by another branch? Sir, it is in vain to disguise the fact that it is because the interests of the United States are not homogeneous, that this protective system has grown up to its present gigantic stature. If the interests of

the people, like the government, were a unit, and the question was, how to produce the greatest aggregate income for the whole, not a man could be found so absurd as to propose the exclusion of foreign manufactures because they are cheap, and substitute domestic manufactures at higher prices, as a means of increasing the national income."

To illustrate the injustice of the protective system towards the producing and exporting sections of the Union, Mr. McDuffie puts a suppositional case, that the Union were peaceably dissolved, and three separate confederacies were formed, one consisting of the middle and eastern states, another of the western and northwestern states, and the third of the southern and southwestern states—denominated respectively, the manufacturing, farming, and planting confederacies; and he then inquires what would be the obvious policy of each confederacy on the questions of free trade and protection?

As Mr. McDuffie's views on this supposed case, are exceedingly elaborate and necessarily local, it is not in our power, nor, indeed, is it necessary in support of his argument, to devote sufficient space to a summary of them. It will be enough to say, that he comes to the conclusion that the planting confederacy would be the exporting and importing states, presenting an unexampled prosperity and advancement to wealth and happiness; that the farming confederation would exchange its products with the south for such imports as it might want, participating in its prosperity; but that the present manufacturing confederation would lose its business and commerce, and become a desert waste. It would also lose the immense government patronage bestowed upon it in the shape of partial disbursements, and be left in its native sterility, to sink into poverty and desolation.

In conclusion, Mr. McDuffie warns the manufacturers and their partisans that there is a point beyond which oppression will not be endured, even by the vilest slaves or most loyal citizens.

Mr. Evans next obtained the floor, in reply to Mr. McDuffie; but the discussion, after some efforts to limit its duration, was postponed. Owing to other business interfering from day to day, it was not again resumed till Monday, the 5th of February.

We shall continue an impartial synopsis of the debate in the next number of this Magazine.

ART. II.—THE COMMERCE OF BOSTON.

THE city of Boston, from the amount of its mercantile enterprise, may be properly denominated the commercial emporium of New England. The capital city of a state containing, according to the census of 1840, a population of 737,699, it is situated near the centre of an extensive manufacturing region whose thousand hills afford the evidences of substantial industry, and whose waterfalls almost everywhere resound with the clattering of machinery. Its port sustains the largest tonnage of any of our northern states, and the flags of the principal commercial nations of Europe wave, from time to time, above its docks. Although destitute of deep and extensive navigable rivers running from the interior to the seaboard, the energy of the people of Massachusetts has supplied this deficiency by the con-

struction of iron roads, which cross the state at numerous points, intersecting the principal marts of trade, and opening cheap, safe, and convenient lines of transportation from the remotest villages within the bounds of the state to its own depots, and thence to the principal cities of the north, the south, and the west, both upon the Atlantic coast and upon the lakes. The hardy enterprise of the seaport towns has poured into its storehouses the products of the fishery, and its harbor is the principal entrepot of shipping, and the place of export in this quarter. Possessing a population of 93,383, according to the last census, and now containing, with the adjoining settlements, a population varying not far from 130,000, the city is the main distributor of the great bulk of her own imports into the interior of the most densely settled portion of the United States. We propose, in the present article, to exhibit, in as accurate form as our materials will permit, the general character of this commerce, its channels of operation, and the causes which now bear upon its prosperous growth.

Although agriculture, as a science, is advanced to a more cultivated state within the limits of Massachusetts than in any other portion of our country, the limited extent of its domain, and the comparative sterility of the soil, as well as the density of its population, have prevented the raising of a surplus of agricultural products. The principal staples of her commercial export are accordingly derived from her manufactures and her fisheries. In manufactures the state stands doubtless before any other in the Union, considering the amount of manufactured articles produced. She makes more than one-third of the whole woollen goods manufactured in the Union, and more than half of all the cotton goods. In the manufacture of boots, shoes, soap, candles, hardware, refined sugar, paper, powder, and firearms, she also stands first; and second only, in the manufacture of machinery, drugs, paints, dyes, furniture, cordage, hats, caps, musical instruments, and silk. In the production of glass, leather, flax, and salt, she stands the third. She owns one-sixth of the manufacturing capital of the country, and about one-fourth of its tonnage. Of the tonnage of the vessels built in the United States in 1841, one-fourth was built in Massachusetts—she furnishing about one-third of its registered seamen. It appears from the statistics of Massachusetts, published by order of the legislature, that in 1837, the annual value of her products was \$85,742,927, consisting mainly of articles manufactured within her own limits, including the value of \$7,592,290 produced by the cod, whale, and mackerel fishery. We have enumerated these items merely to show what staples are furnished by the industry of the people of Massachusetts to the export trade of the port of Boston.

We now proceed to exhibit the amount of commerce actually carried on in this port as it appears with accuracy from the returns of the custom-house. As introductory thereto, we would allude briefly to the arrangements that have been made in its harbor for the prosecution of its commercial enterprises. The harbor itself is safe and easy of access, affording a depth of water sufficient to float any ship that navigates the ocean, and is sheltered from the storms of the main sea. But its principal advantage for the security of vessels, and it is one that distinguishes this port from other principal ports of our country, are its numerous docks, which are constructed with solid strength, and run far up into the city. These are bordered by continuous blocks of warehouses, either of brick or Quincy granite, which have an appearance of remarkable uniformity, solidity, and

permanence. By the arrangement of these docks, the numerous vessels, whose tracery of spars and cordage line them on either side, may unship their cargoes at the very doors of the bordering warehouses, and receive in return their supplies for foreign ports with the utmost security and dispatch. Indeed, the substantial appearance of these warehouses, is quite similar to the mercantile houses in the other parts of the city, which have a like solidity and massiveness in the materials of which they are built, as well as in their construction.

According to the report of the secretary of the treasury, which, it is well known, is made up from the returns of the collectors of the several districts, the total imports of Massachusetts amounted to the sum of \$17,986,433, and the total exports to \$9,807,110, during the year 1842; and it is probably safe to allege that a considerable portion of this trade is carried on from the port of Boston. The tonnage belonging to the people of Boston is not, however, altogether confined to her own port, but it is well known that one-third of the commerce of New York, from the year 1839 to 1842, was carried on either upon Massachusetts' account, or in Massachusetts' vessels; and the ships of Massachusetts, it is equally well known, transact a considerable portion of the commerce of New York, particularly in the East India trade. From the report of the secretary of the treasury, Mr. Spencer, it appears that the tonnage of Boston, during the year ending the 30th of September, 1842, was as follows:—

Registered tonnage, 157,116.70 95ths; enrolled and licensed tonnage, 36,385.48 95ths: the total tonnage being 193,502.23 95ths. There were also 38 vessels here built within that year.

We also here subjoin, from the same source, a statement of the number of American and foreign vessels, with their tonnage and crews, that entered the district of Boston during the same period:—

Number of American vessels, 849; tons, 197,48; crews of men, 8,029; boys, 361. Number of foreign vessels, 870; tons, 78,885; men, 4,941. Total American and foreign vessels that entered, 1,719; tons, 276,366; men, 12,970; boys, 361.

American and foreign vessels that cleared from the port of Boston, during the same period:—

Number of American vessels, 713; tons, 146,828; men, 6,637. Number of foreign vessels, 861; tons, 78,588; men, 5,142.

The above returns give to Boston a total tonnage and number of seamen, amounting to 1,574 American and foreign vessels cleared, with a tonnage of 225,416, and 11,779 seamen.

During the following year, 1843, it appears from authentic returns, that have been procured at the collector's office, that the registered tonnage of Boston during that year, was 169,901; enrolled and licensed, 31,422; and that there were 36 vessels built within the district during that year, there having been employed in the vessels entering the port, 12,458 seamen, and in those that were cleared from the port, 11,635.

We subjoin, however, a more particular statement of the arrivals in Boston in 1843, for which we are indebted to the Massachusetts Register:—

	ARRIVALS.				
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.
Coastwise,	102	158	683	3,860	141
Foreign,	127	153	524	946
Total,	207	311	1,207	4,806	141

Of these arrivals, 1 ship, 6 barks, 109 brigs, and 724 schooners were British; 1 bark and 1 brig were Swedish; 1 brig was Bremen; 2 brigs Russian; 1 brig was Spanish; 1 was French; and 2 barks and 2 schooners were Sicilian.

The clearances for the same period, were as follows:—

CLEARANCES.					
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.
Coastwise,.....	159	160	555	1,548	75
Foreign,.....	78	144	477	883	...
Total,.....	237	309	1,032	2,431	75

Of these foreign clearances, 1 ship, 6 barks, 103 brigs, 744 schooners were British; 1 bark and 1 brig were Swedish; 1 brig was Bremen; 2 brigs were Russian; 1 brig was Spanish; 1 brig was French; and 2 barks and 2 brigs were Sicilian.

We have thus given an exhibit of the commerce of Boston, in a summary form, in order to show the various species of vessels which from time to time enter its port, with their number; but before going into a more particular view of the subject we would subjoin the following table including the value of the imports and exports of Massachusetts for a series of eleven years, ending in 1841. To the granite and ice formerly constituting a prominent staple of export from the port of Boston, is now added a large amount of flour and other agricultural products of the west exported in British vessels:—

MASSACHUSETTS.

Date.	Value of imports.	Value of exp'ts.	Date.	Value of imports.	Value of exp'ts.
1831,.....	\$14,269,056	\$7,733,763	1837,.....	\$19,984,668	\$9,728,190
1832,.....	18,118,900	11,993,768	1838,.....	13,300,925	9,104,862
1833,.....	19,940,901	9,983,123	1839,.....	19,385,233	9,276,085
1834,.....	17,672,129	10,148,820	1840,.....	16,513,858	10,186,261
1835,.....	19,800,373	10,043,790	1841,.....	20,318,003	11,487,343
1836,.....	25,081,462	10,380,346			

We have before remarked that the city of Boston is the distributor into the interior of a densely settled portion of the country, of those staples of commerce which are imported from abroad, and it has also come to be a prominent consumer, distributor, and exporter of a large amount of agricultural products received from the west.*

The manufactures of cotton goods in the state of Massachusetts, and especially in the region within the immediate vicinity of Boston, it is well known, supplies a considerable portion of its export trade. Although the total manufactures of the United States consume but about 325,000 bales out of our total crop of 2,378,000 bales, yet the working up of the former quantity is enabled to produce a vast amount of manufactured goods, an amount nearly sufficient to supply the consumption of the country. Those cotton goods have been formerly exported to a considerable extent to South America and the East Indies; and the opening of the ports of China to our own ships, upon liberal terms, will doubtless greatly increase our exports into that quarter. We perceive by a recent number of the Boston Shipping List, that the principal exports of domestics from

* For a variety of tables exhibiting the amount of several of the principal articles received at the port of Boston, for a series of years down to December, 1843, inclusive, see Merchants' Magazine for March, 1844, Vol. X., No. 3, pp. 287, 288, 289.

the port of Boston, are to the East Indies, the West Indies, Mexico, South America, Turkey, Smyrna, Central America, Hayti, the South Pacific, Canton, and Honduras. Although a late exportation of cotton goods into Canton was attended with an alleged loss, still that particular consignment is stated to have been made with but little care, as the goods were of inferior quality. The negotiation of favorable arrangements with the Chinese empire, however, now pending, placing the admission of our own ships into their ports upon the same footing with those of the British, will doubtless open a more extended market for the cotton goods of our own country, as well as our other domestic products. In order to supply the manufactures of cotton goods, within the vicinity of Boston, it is obvious that the great bulk of the cotton to be worked up in those establishments must be carried into her own port; and to show the actual amount thus brought in, we are enabled to subjoin the following table exhibiting the importations of cotton into the port of Boston for the period of fourteen years, commencing with 1830, and ending in 1843, and the places from which it is brought. As the cotton thus imported is distributed into the interior by railroad and other conveyances, and as nearly all is consumed in the neighboring factories, the rapid increase of manufactures may be judged from these returns:—

IMPORTATION OF COTTON INTO BOSTON, FOR FOURTEEN YEARS.

Year.	From N. Orleans. Bales.	From Charleston. Bales.	From Savannah. Bales.	From Mobile. Bales.	From Florida. Bales.	From Natchez. Bales.
1830,.....	20,609	8,605	9,176	3,995	70
1831,.....	30,306	7,159	5,668	6,055	479
1832,.....	25,693	15,470	9,916	7,213	58
1833,.....	29,301	8,761	6,699	5,781	106
1834,.....	27,342	14,474	6,648	9,593	41
1835,.....	43,259	13,453	6,794	14,019	868
1836,.....	37,908	17,868	8,879	12,680	2,813
1837,.....	39,523	18,835	10,922	7,973	3,633
1838,.....	44,523	14,821	11,123	7,821	10,313	2,637
1839,.....	48,103	9,349	6,306	14,593	9,186	3,798
1840,.....	65,070	22,889	9,137	19,944	14,499	3,278
1841,.....	72,966	12,228	5,721	28,100	10,466	950
1842,.....	56,343	19,586	11,334	19,204	11,201	253
1843,.....	73,022	16,739	15,565	24,861	20,704
Total, ..	613,968	200,237	123,888	181,832	84,437	10,916

Year.	From New York. Bales.	From N. Carolina. Bales.	From Virginia. Bales.	From Philad'a. Bales.	From Baltimore. Bales.	From oth'r places. Bales.	Total. Bales.
1830,.....	1,664	1,202	272	345	265	46,203
1831,.....	978	1,978	660	171	347	53,810
1832,.....	679	467	279	23	213	60,011
1833,.....	1,584	1,231	253	99	324	54,139
1834,.....	1,759	199	217	18	21	60,312
1835,.....	1,596	404	74	172	80,709
1836,.....	1,984	369	194	15	175	82,885
1837,.....	1,146	128	90	46	20	368	82,684
1838,.....	4,383	115	344	9	21	528	96,636
1839,.....	2,826	38	112	50	94,361
1840,.....	3,296	38	118	183	257	138,709
1841,.....	495	33	2	162	45	692	131,860
1842,.....	891	42	50	274	76	416	119,670
1843,.....	505	117	10	25	1	74	151,523
Total, ..	23,795	6,331	2,422	1,483	303	3,900	1,253,512

The most direct and bulky species of business transacted with Boston in connection with the cotton manufacture, is that with the city of Lowell. The importance of this city as a manufacturing mart, and the influence which it exerts upon the commerce of Boston, induce a particular description. With a population of about 28,000, it is essentially a manufacturing city, as little else besides the business connected with its manufacturing establishments is performed within its limits. On the incorporation of the town of Lowell, in 1826, it contained a population of only 3,000. Ten years afterwards, namely, in 1836, the city charter was granted, when it had about 18,000, since which time it has advanced to its present prosperous condition. The direct communication which it possesses with Boston, by means of its well constructed railroad, furnishing an avenue for the transportation of its bulky manufactured products, as well as the cotton to be worked up, and also of passengers, renders it of great value to the commerce of the city. The admirable management of the manufacturing establishments themselves, and the thrifty and respectable condition of those who are employed in them, engaged in that industry which is an honor to all, and a disgrace to no one, constitute it a model for such institutions elsewhere. A periodical is in fact here issued, conducted by individuals employed at the looms, that would do exceeding credit to any intellectual community. We here subjoin, in a summary form, the condition of those establishments at the present time.

The following statistics of the manufactures of Lowell, (Mass.) Jan. 1, 1844, are compiled from authentic sources. There are eleven companies or corporations, viz: the Lock and Canal, Merrimack, Hamilton, Appleton, Lowell, Middlesex, Suffolk, Tremont, Lawrence, Boot, and Massachusetts. We give statistics of each company, as follows:—

LOCK AND CANAL, incorporated 1792, commenced operations 1822, capital stock, \$600,000; has two shops, smithy and furnace; employs 500 males; manufactures 1,225 tons wrought and cast iron per annum, consisting of machinery, railroad cars, and engines; and consumes 15,000 bushels charcoal, 200 chaldrons smiths' coal, 400 tons hard, 200 cords of wood, and 2,300 gallons of oil per annum.

MERRIMACK, incorporated in 1822, commenced operations in 1823, capital stock, \$2,000,000; has 5 mills and print-works, 40,384 spindles, and 1,300 looms; employs 1,250 females, and 550 males; makes 250,000 yards of cotton per week, and uses 150 bales of cotton in the same time, or 56,000 lbs.; yards dyed and printed, 210,000. The kind of goods manufactured by this company are prints and sheetings, No. 22 to 40. Consumes per annum, of anthracite coal, 5,000 tons; of wood, 200 cords; of oil, 13,000 gallons.

HAMILTON, incorporated 1825, commenced operations same year, capital stock, \$1,000,000; has 3 mills and print-works, 21,248 spindles, and 590 looms; employs 650 females, and 250 males; makes 100,000 yards per week; uses 100 bales, or 42,000 lbs.; prints and dyes 63,000 yards. The kinds of goods manufactured are prints, flannels, sheetings, &c., from No. 14 to 20. Consumes 3,000 tons anthracite coal, 500 cords wood, and 6,500 gallons oil.

APPLETON, incorporated in 1828, commenced operations the same year, with a capital of \$600,000; has 2 mills, 11,776 spindles, and 400 looms; employs 340 females, and 65 males; manufactures 100,000 yards per week; uses 90 bales of cotton, or 36,000 lbs. The kind of goods manufactured by this company are sheetings and shirtings. Consumes 300 tons anthracite coal, and 3,440 gallons of oil.

LOWELL, incorporated 1828, and commenced operations the same year, with a capital stock of \$600,000; has 2 mills, one cotton and one carpet; has 6,000 cotton spindles, besides wool; 152 cotton looms, 50 power carpet, and 40 hand-looms; employs 400 females, and 200 males; manufactures per week 2,500 yards; carpets, 150; rugs, 85,000; uses 110 bales, and 40,000 lbs. of cotton wrought in do. The kind of goods manufactured are carpets, rugs, and negro cloth. Consumes 500 tons of anthracite coal, 500 cords of wood, 4,000 gallons olive oil, and 4,000 gallons sperm oil per annum.

MIDDLESEX, incorporated in 1830, commenced operations same year, capital stock, \$750,000; has 2 mills, and 2 dye-houses; 7,200 spindles; 37 looms for broadcloth, and

MASSACHUSETTS, incorporated in 1839, commenced operations in 1840; capital stock, \$1,200,000; has 4 mills, 27,008 spindles, and 882 looms; employs 725 females, and 160 males; makes 260,000 yards per week, and consumes 200 bales, or 80,000 lbs. of cotton. The goods made are sheetings, shirtings, and drillings. Consumes 750 tons of anthracite coal, 70 cords of wood, and 7,100 gallons of oil per annum.

Another important source from which the commerce of Boston is derived, and, indeed, the branch of commerce in which the state of Massachusetts takes the lead, is the fisheries. This fact is doubtless owing to the circumstance of its proximity to the fishing grounds of the northern part of our coast, the banks of Newfoundland, and other fishing stations.

To the ordinary observer of the character of the business transacted at the docks, it is evident that the fishery constitutes an important part of its commercial enterprise. The populous towns that are scattered along the neighboring coast, from its port to Cape Cod, and the mouth of the Penobscot, have each a large number of vessels employed in the cod, herring, and mackarel fisheries; and these fishing vessels sail from those ports to the various fishing stations, not only upon our own coast, but even to the banks of Newfoundland, returning to pour into the port of Boston the products of this most important branch of our maritime enterprise. We may here, without exaggeration, commend the prudence, the perseverance, the morality, the hardihood, the courage, and the patriotism, of the fishermen of New England, who have manned our merchant ships, carried our flag to the remotest part of the globe, returning with stores of wealth to our own ports, from every foreign clime, and who have sustained our naval prowess with signal honor and in numerous actions, both upon the ocean and the lakes. From the port of Boston, the products of the cod, the herring, and the mackarel fishery, are distributed not only into various parts of the interior, but coastwise to the prominent ports of the frontier, even to the mouth of the Mississippi, a considerable portion being exported abroad.

In order to exhibit, in some measure, the importance of the fishery to the commerce of the port, and the extent to which it is carried on from the towns upon the coast, we may remark that of the 773,947 quintals of smoked and dried fish, the total product of the Union, the state of Massachusetts furnished 389,715 quintals. Of the total product of 472,359 barrels of pickled fish, the total product of the United States, Massachusetts furnished 124,755 barrels. Of the 4,764,708 gallons of spermaceti oil, the product of the United States, Massachusetts supplied 3,630,973 gallons; and of the whale and fish oils furnished by the United States, and amounting to 7,536,778 gallons, Massachusetts alone contributed 3,364,725 gallons. A more prominent fact may be stated, that, of the \$16,429,623, the capital invested throughout the United States in the fisheries, Massachusetts alone supplies \$11,725,850 of that capital.*

But it is in the India trade of Boston, that she exceeds any other port of the United States, not excepting even the city of New York. It appears that, during the year 1843, eight of the arrivals at the latter port consisted of ships belonging to Boston merchants, while others were freighted on Boston account. It is also well known that eight vessels belonging to the port of Boston were cleared from the harbor of New York. The East India trade, formerly prosecuted to a considerable extent from the port of Salem, has been diverted to other ports, and Boston now holds the larger share. We have before us authenticated memoranda of the vessels which arrived and cleared from the port of Boston, for ports in the East Indies and ports beyond Cape Horn, during the year 1843. There were during that period, at this port, twenty-eight arrivals, and from the following places, namely: eleven from Calcutta, nine from Manilla, two from Canton, one from Singapore, two from the Sandwich Isl-

* For the purpose of showing the amount of the enterprise connected with the mackerel fishery, in the towns along the coast of Massachusetts, we refer the reader to a table in Vol. X., No. 3, for March, 1844, of the *Merchants' Magazine*, p. 290. This table, it will be seen, exhibits the number of barrels inspected in Massachusetts, in 1843, and also the total amount in each year, from 1831 to 1843, inclusive.

ands, one from California, and two from Valparaiso. During the same year, there were cleared at Boston twelve vessels for Canton, fifteen for Calcutta, four for Sumatra, six for Manilla, two for Batavia, one for Singapore, four for the Sandwich Isles, one for Madras and Calcutta, one for Cape Town and Manilla, one for Hong-Kong, (China,) two for the north-west coast, via Europe, one for Cape Town and Calcutta, one for Cape Town, one for New South Wales and Manilla, seven for Valparaiso, one for Batavia and Manilla, one for Batavia and Canton, two for California, one for Sumatra via Amsterdam, one for Montevideo and Batavia, and one for Manilla and Mauritius, the total number of clearances to those ports being sixty-six. This amount of the India and Pacific trade with Boston, is doubtless a source of considerable wealth, while it employs a large amount of capital and enterprise.

The extended field which appears to be opening for our commerce in the Chinese empire, and the public interest that has recently been directed to that country, would seem to call for particular remark, since it may be regarded as a future profitable market for our cotton goods, as well as other of our products. The first export of cotton goods to China was made in 1827, and it consisted chiefly of yarn, amounting in value to about \$9,000 or \$10,000, since which time the trade has gradually increased. As late as 1841, it amounted to \$173,775, the succeeding year it had advanced to the value of \$497,318, and in 1843 it was estimated in Boston that it had reached \$2,000,000 during that year. From returns now before us, it appears that, in 1842, there were exported from the United States to China, goods to the value of \$737,509, much the greater part of which consisted in the product of the cotton manufactures, it comprising nearly one-half of the total export. The imports during that year amounted in value to \$8,790,735. They consisted of teas, coffee, and other articles, the balance of the trade with that government during the year being a little more than \$8,000,000. The principal imports of China to this country, tea, silks, and nankeens, are in great demand in most markets, and if, as we have reason to hope, favorable negotiations should be effected with that government, by the diplomatic agent of the United States, Mr. Cushing, who is now, as it is understood, awaiting the action of the Chinese court, we may hope for the prosecution of a profitable trade with that empire. We see no reason why our own trade with her ports should not be placed upon the same footing with that of England. If we sustain any competition with a foreign power in the Chinese markets, it will doubtless be mainly with England. England, like the United States, produces, in the largest amount, those articles that are required by the people of China, and we believe that the prospects opened in that country for foreign commerce will be attended with manifold advantages to those who may be employed in its prosecution.

Another prominent feature of Massachusetts enterprise, bearing directly upon the commercial prosperity of its capital city, is the construction of numerous railroads running through almost every quarter of the state, intersecting its most important towns and manufacturing villages, and leading into the principal cities, both at the north, the south, the east, and the west. These railroads, to Massachusetts, supply the place of navigable rivers and canals. They furnish cheap, safe, and rapid lines of transportation, both for goods and passengers. They converge, for the greater

part, in the city of Boston. They furnish an avenue to distribute the imports of its foreign commerce into the interior, and to transport the raw cotton required in the manufacturing establishments to their respective places of deposit, as well as to carry the manufactured goods wrought in the centre of the state to their proper markets, and to bring the agricultural products of the west into their places of shipment and export upon the seaboard. The enterprise of the state has, moreover, accomplished a considerable portion of the gigantic work, now completed—a continuous line of railroad, 522 miles in length, extending from Boston to Buffalo, upon the shore of Lake Erie.

It is stated, and we do not doubt the accuracy of the statement, that the New England railroads have paid upon an average from 6 to 8 per cent, since their completion; and constructed, as they have been, to perform the business already existing, and not mere anticipated business, they will doubtless advance prosperously under the influence of trade, which from the eminent advantages which they afford must be diverted into this direction. A project is now agitated with much spirit, directed to the extension of the Fitchburg railroad across the states of New Hampshire and Vermont, to Burlington, upon the borders of Lake Champlain. This work will doubtless soon be completed, and will draw to Boston a considerable part of the trade of the Champlain canal, and a portion of Lower Canada. The road itself passes through a very productive quarter of the state of Massachusetts, rich in various species of manufacture, water-power, wood, and timber, now deprived of convenient markets, and will exercise, when completed, a very important influence upon the commerce of Boston. On the completion of this road, the proprietors of the Cunard line of steamers, we perceive it stated, design running their line boats directly between Liverpool and Boston, and under those circumstances, the railroad will bring the New England metropolis within fifteen hours of Montreal. The work will also take the produce of a part of the valley of the Connecticut, and the counties on Lake Champlain, and the south shore of a part of the St. Lawrence cheaper, to Boston, than to any other seaport.*

In connection with the commerce of Boston, it may be proper to exhibit the capital invested in its banks: for, after all, money is as essential to the vigor of trade, as the vital fluid to the health of the human body, and moneyed transactions are closely interwoven with every department of mercantile enterprise.

CAPITAL INVESTED IN BOSTON BANKS.

Names of Bk's.	Capital, Oct. 1843.	Val. of cap. according to av. dividends per annum, for ten years.		Change in the value of the capital in 1842 and 1843.	
		October, 1841.	October, 1843.	Improvement.	Depreciation.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Atlantic,.....	500,000	441,666 66½	433,333 33½	8,333 33½
Atlas,.....	500,000	238,095 23¼*	273,148 14¼*	35,052 91*
Boston,.....	600,000	665,000 00	690,000 00	25,000 00
City,.....	1,000,000	925,000 00	816,666 66½	108,333 33½
Columbian,...	500,000	500,000 00	491,666 66½	8,333 33½
Eagle,.....	500,000	508,333 33½	450,000 00	58,333 33½

NOTE.—The fractions of a cent, marked with a (*), are as nearly expressed as our figures will allow us.

* For a table exhibiting the actual condition of the Massachusetts railroads, carefully compiled from the annual reports to the legislature, see *Merchants' Magazine*, for April, 1844, Vol. X., No. IV., p. 362.

CAPITAL INVESTED IN BOSTON BANKS—Continued.

Names of Bk's.	Capital, Oct. 1843.	Val. of cap. according to av. dividends per annum, for ten years.		Change in the value of the capital in 1842 and 1843.	
		October, 1841.	October, 1843.	Improvement.	Depreciation.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Freemans,....	150,000	155,000 00	160,714 28½*	5,714 28½*
Globe,.....	1,000,000	1,025,000 00	1,025,000 00
Granite,.....	500,000	416,666 66½	412,000 00	4,166 66½
Hamilton,....	500,000	495,614 03½*	491,666 66½	3,947 36½
Market,.....	560,000	414,838 71*	425,825 15*	10,986 44*
Massachus,...	800,000	665,333 33½	665,333 33½
Mechanics,...	150,000	150,000 00	144,642 85½*	5,357 14½*
Merchants,...	2,000,000	2,000,000 00	2,235,934 96*	789 33*
N. England,.	1,000,000	1,033,333 33½	1,033,333 33½
North,.....	750,000	650,000 00	562,500 00	87,500 00
Shawmut,....	500,000	416,666 66½	422,619 04½*	5,952 38½*
Shoe and Leather Dealers,	500,000	566,666 66½	559,523 81*	7,142 85½*
State,.....	1,800,000	1,732,500 00	1,735,000 00	2,500 00
Suffolk,.....	1,000,000	1,320,512 82*	1,371,980 67½*	51,467 85½*
Traders,.....	500,000	487,500 00	375,000 00	112,500 00
Tremont,....	500,080	487,500 00	454,166 66½	33,333 33½
Union,.....	800,000	746,666 66½	760,000 00	13,333 33½
Washington,.	500,000	421,250 00	410,416 66½	20,833 33½
Deduct	150,796 53½*	458,114 03½*
Tot., 24 b'ks,	17,110,000	16,768,289 77*	16,460,972 27*	307,317 50*
Deprec. 1841,	341,710 23*
Deprec. 1843,	649,027 73*

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In connection with the causes bearing upon the prosperity of Boston, it may be proper to allude to the advance of the city in wealth and improvement. With the increase of commerce and the various sorts of enterprise with which it is connected, must be the increase in the number of those who are to transact the business in its various departments, as well as the increase in the number of buildings for their accommodation. Dwelling-houses, workshops, stores, and other edifices, are required to be constructed for those who come to swell the population; and the increase of such buildings is apparent in those extensive blocks of new edifices which have been finished, and that are now rising in the eastern part of the city within the vicinity of the western railroad storehouses, and depot, as well as in other parts, and along its principal streets. We have here appended a statement exhibiting the growth of the city in this respect, from an authentic source, which is, of course, exclusive of those that have been since erected, and which will amount to a greater number, it is said, within the present year.

A statement of the number of houses, &c., built and now building in the city of Boston, from January to November, 1843, taken by the city marshal, James H. Blake, Esq. :—

BOSTON PROPER.			
Brick houses and stores,.....	544	Wooden "	2
Wooden "	194	Other large buildings,.....	6
" stables, &c.,.....	56		
Brick school-houses,.....	4	Total,.....	807
" churches,.....	1		

part, in the city of Boston. They furnish an avenue to distribute the imports of its foreign commerce into the interior, and to transport the raw cotton required in the manufacturing establishments to their respective places of deposit, as well as to carry the manufactured goods wrought in the centre of the state to their proper markets, and to bring the agricultural products of the west into their places of shipment and export upon the seaboard. The enterprise of the state has, moreover, accomplished a considerable portion of the gigantic work, now completed—a continuous line of railroad, 522 miles in length, extending from Boston to Buffalo, upon the shore of Lake Erie.

It is stated, and we do not doubt the accuracy of the statement, that the New England railroads have paid upon an average from 6 to 8 per cent, since their completion; and constructed, as they have been, to perform the business already existing, and not mere anticipated business, they will doubtless advance prosperously under the influence of trade, which from the eminent advantages which they afford must be diverted into this direction. A project is now agitated with much spirit, directed to the extension of the Fitchburg railroad across the states of New Hampshire and Vermont, to Burlington, upon the borders of Lake Champlain. This work will doubtless soon be completed, and will draw to Boston a considerable part of the trade of the Champlain canal, and a portion of Lower Canada. The road itself passes through a very productive quarter of the state of Massachusetts, rich in various species of manufacture, water-power, wood, and timber, now deprived of convenient markets, and will exercise, when completed, a very important influence upon the commerce of Boston. On the completion of this road, the proprietors of the Cunard line of steamers, we perceive it stated, design running their line boats directly between Liverpool and Boston, and under those circumstances, the railroad will bring the New England metropolis within fifteen hours of Montreal. The work will also take the produce of a part of the valley of the Connecticut, and the counties on Lake Champlain, and the south shore of a part of the St. Lawrence cheaper, to Boston, than to any other seaport.*

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		October, 1841.	October, 1843.	Improvement.	Depreciation.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Atlantic,.....	500,000	441,666 66 $\frac{2}{3}$	433,333 33 $\frac{1}{3}$	8,333 33 $\frac{1}{3}$
Atlas,.....	500,000	238,095 23 $\frac{1}{4}$ *	273,148 14 $\frac{1}{4}$ *	35,052 91*
Boston,.....	600,000	665,000 00	690,000 00	25,000 00
City,.....	1,000,000	925,000 00	816,666 66 $\frac{2}{3}$	108,333 33 $\frac{1}{3}$
Columbian,...	500,000	500,000 00	491,666 66 $\frac{2}{3}$	8,333 33 $\frac{1}{3}$
Eagle,.....	500,000	508,333 33 $\frac{1}{3}$	450,000 00	58,333 33 $\frac{1}{3}$

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CAPITAL INVESTED IN BOSTON BANKS—Continued.

Names of Bk's.	Capital, Oct. 1843.	Val. of cap. according to av. dividends per annum, for ten years.		Change in the value of the capital in 1842 and 1843.	
		October, 1841.	October, 1843.	Improvement.	Depreciation.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Freemans,....	150,000	155,000 00	160,714 28½*	5,714 28½*
Globe,.....	1,000,000	1,025,000 00	1,025,000 00
Granite,.....	500,000	416,666 66½	412,000 00	4,166 66½
Hamilton,....	500,000	495,614 03½*	491,666 66½	3,947 36½
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Merchants,...	2,000,000	2,293,934 96*	2,293,934 96*	789 33*
N. England,.,	1,000,000	1,033,333 33½	1,033,333 33½
North,.....	750,000	650,000 00	562,500 00	87,500 00
Shawmut,....	500,000	416,666 66½	422,619 04½*	5,952 38½*
Shoe and Leather Dealers,	500,000	566,666 66½	559,523 81*	7,142 85½*
State,.....	1,800,000	1,732,500 00	1,735,000 00	2,500 00
Suffolk,.....	1,000,000	1,320,512 82*	1,371,980 67½*	51,467 85½*
Traders,.....	500,000	487,500 00	375,000 00	112,500 00
Tremont,.....	500,080	487,500 00	454,166 66½	33,333 33½
Union,.....	800,000	746,666 66½	760,000 00	13,333 33½
Washington,.,	500,000	421,250 00	410,416 66½	20,833 33½
Deduct	150,796 53½*	458,114 03½*
Tot., 24 b'ks,	17,110,000	16,768,289 77*	16,460,972 27*	307,317 50*
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Deprec. 1843,	649,027 73*

NOTE.—The fractions of a cent, marked with a (*), are as nearly expressed as our figures will allow us.

In connection with the causes bearing upon the prosperity of Boston, it may be proper to allude to the advance of the city in wealth and improvement. With the increase of commerce and the various sorts of enterprise with which it is connected, must be the increase in the number of those who are to transact the business in its various departments, as well as the increase in the number of buildings for their accommodation. Dwelling-houses, workshops, stores, and other edifices, are required to be constructed for those who come to swell the population; and the increase of such buildings is apparent in those extensive blocks of new edifices which have been finished, and that are now rising in the eastern part of the city within the vicinity of the western railroad storehouses, and depot, as well as in other parts, and along its principal streets. We have here appended a statement exhibiting the growth of the city in this respect, from an authentic source, which is, of course, exclusive of those that have been since erected, and which will amount to a greater number, it is said, within the present year.

A statement of the number of houses, &c., built and now building in the city of Boston, from January to November, 1843, taken by the city marshal, James H. Blake, Esq.:—

BOSTON PROPER.			
Brick houses and stores,.....	544	Wooden "	2
Wooden "	194	Other large buildings,.....	6
" stables, &c.,.....	56		
Brick school-houses,.....	4	Total,.....	807
" churches,.....	1		

SOUTH BOSTON.

Catholic church,.....	1	Wooden work-shops,.....	4
Brick houses,.....	5		
Wooden houses,.....	142	Total,.....	154
" stores,.....	2		

EAST BOSTON.

Wooden houses,.....	150
Brick "	7
Total,.....	157

Grand total,..... 1,118

This is an increase over last year of about 300 buildings, and does not include small structures, such as workshops, temporary buildings, &c.

The following extract from the assessors' books, exhibits the aggregate amount of all the real and personal estate and polls, and the taxes estimated and levied thereon by the assessors of the city of Boston, in the several years 1842-3 and 1843-4:—

1842-43.

Polls,.....	19,636	\$1½ each	\$29,454 00
Personal estate,...	\$41,223,800	57 cents on \$100	234,975 66
Real estate,.....	65,499,900	" "	373,349 43
Total,.....	\$106,723,700	Levied, \$	637,779 09
Sum of the warrant,.....			610,000 00
Excess,.....			\$27,779 09

1843-44.

Polls,.....	20,063	\$1½ each	\$30,094 50
Personal estate,...	\$42,372,600	62 cents on \$100	262,710 12
Real estate,.....	67,673,400	" "	419,575 08
Total,.....	\$110,046,000	Levied, \$	712,379 70
Sum of the warrant,.....			685,000 00
Excess,.....			\$27,379 09

The foregoing shows an increase, within the year ending on the 1st of May last, of 427 polls (equal to 2,135 population;) \$1,148,800 personal property; \$2,173,500 real estate; 5 cents on the \$100 of the rate, and \$74,600 61 increase in the sum total of the tax, the sum total of the tax being nearly 12 per cent greater than last year. By computing the population at five times greater than the number of taxed polls, (which is deemed a fair proportion,) the city numbered, on the first of May last, 100,315 inhabitants.

We have exhibited, in general terms, the foreign commerce of Boston, but we would fail to specify the ample accommodations provided in her port for the coastwise trade. Substantial, convenient, and elegant lines of packets are established between her own docks, and Portland, Portsmouth, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, New Orleans, Mobile, Norfolk, Savannah, and other principal ports upon the coast. A most important measure has likewise been undertaken by foreign enterprise, calculated, in a great degree, to further the prominence of this port as a place of commerce, in the permanent organization of a line of British and North American Royal Mail Steamships, which now regularly ply between Liv-

erpool and Boston, by the way of Halifax. This enterprise is understood to have been projected by Mr. Samuel Cunard, under contract with the lords of the British admiralty, and now possesses in its employ four steamships of 1,200 tons, and 440 horse power, each, which arrive alternately into the port of Boston and depart with adequate freights and passengers. They now consist of the steam vessels, the *Hibernia*, the *Brittania*, the *Caledonia*, and the *Acadia*, exclusive of the *Columbia*, which, during the last summer, was stranded upon a rock during her passage to Halifax and wrecked. The certainty and uniformity with which these steam vessels have made their voyages, since the establishment of the line, and the marked advantages that have attended their rapid voyages, both to and from their own country, will, doubtless, warrant their profitable continuance.

We have given a compendious, and, we believe, accurate view of Boston commerce; and it will be evident to those who examine the subject that it is now in a prosperous and thriving condition. With lines of railroads penetrating every quarter of the country, and heaping her depots and storehouses with her own manufactured goods, as well as the agricultural products of the west, both animal and vegetable, with cotton or woollen manufactories playing upon almost every waterfall in her vicinity, with fisheries that pour into her warehouses the most valuable products for consumption and export, with a coastwise trade that reaches all our principal ports, a regular steam communication with Europe, and a foreign commerce that floats in every sea, with accumulated capital, the offspring of two centuries of industry and frugality, of morality and perseverance, and with a working population, preserving some of the most valuable traits of their ancestors, she cannot but continue to be prosperous.

We would not conclude this paper without bearing our humble testimony to those prominent traits of character which have ever marked the mercantile community of the port whose commerce we have attempted to describe. It is not adapted to our taste, nor is this the place to bestow indiscriminate eulogium upon any man or body of men; but, if straightforward honesty and liberality, intelligence and forecast, enterprise and perseverance, tend to constitute an elevated form of commercial character, then we may find it here in the commercial metropolis of New England. Its merchants have never been found wanting in those traits which go to make up solid and patriotic principle, and they have always been foremost in the ranks of beneficence and patriotism. It is doubtless their enterprise and industry that have, in a great measure, made it what it is: for it possesses but sparse agricultural advantages, and forms a part of a rocky coast. The evidences of these sterling traits are manifest in the numerous institutions here established for purposes of charity, education, and religion—in its public schools, churches, and hospitals—in its various stocks which are sought by capitalists from abroad as safe and stable investments, and in that elegant edifice erected by the commercial body, and devoted to objects connected with commerce—the Merchants' Exchange. We might have touched upon the more ornate features of our subject, and have attempted to describe those picturesque and smiling villages scattered along the shore, which seem to slumber in snow-white purity around the margin of the harbor, as if to soften the rugged face of nature and the tumult of business with the delicate loveliness of art; but

we have preferred to confine ourselves to its more practical bearings, and to exhibit the actual condition of that commerce, which, in connection with the character by which it is wielded, is enabled to exercise a mighty influence upon the prospects of New England.

ART. III.—THE CROTON AQUEDUCT.*

DISASTROUS as the result of that expansion of credit, which, for a time pervaded the whole commercial world has been to the fortunes of individuals, its existence has not passed away without leaving numerous permanent works of art and utility by which to perpetuate the remembrance of the halcyon days. Among the enterprises owing their origin to a universally diffused confidence in the continuance of a state of prosperity, that was not lightly supposed had its foundation in other than ephemeral causes—in the vastly increased powers of production, and in the augmented facilities of intercommunication by sea and by land, to which the application of steam to the various purposes in question had mainly contributed, may we ascribe the construction of the Croton aqueduct. This work, which is not less honorable to the commercial emporium, to the health and prosperity of which it contributes, than was the Erie canal, twenty years previous, to the great state whose wealth and population it has tended so essentially to augment, was, to an extent unprecedented in ordinary legislation, the direct emanation of popular sentiment. Indeed, we hazard little in saying, even after being in a position to appreciate the fruits of this republican providence, that nothing short of the buoyancy which, in April, 1835, already manifested itself in the pecuniary concerns of the community at large, could have obtained for a project involving the expenditure, demanded at the lowest calculation, of several millions, for supplying the city "with pure and wholesome water," three-fourths of the votes of the electors of New York; including, in this majority, the whole body of tax-paying inhabitants.

In making these remarks, we are not ignorant of the existence of former projects for the attainment of the same object. All of them, however, though contemplated on a scale vastly inferior to the present aqueduct, were without any adequate result. The subject, even before the revolution, occupied the attention of the city councils; and, in carrying into effect, in 1774, the plan of a public reservoir, the supply of which was to be obtained from the digging of large wells, recourse was had to the issue of paper money, which our colonial historians, not less than those of the revolution, teach us, is no invention of recent date, but has long existed, even in America, as the ordinary panacea for all financial embarrassments. To all measures, however, having reference merely to the amelioration of domestic arrangements, or the comforts of tranquil citizens, the events of the war, during the greater part of which New York was a British garrison, of course put an end.

* A Memoir on the Construction, Cost, and Capacity of the Croton Aqueduct, compiled from Official Documents. Together with an Account of the Civic Celebration of the 14th October, 1842, on occasion of the completion of the great work. Preceded by a Preliminary Essay on Ancient and Modern Aqueducts. By CHARLES KING. New York: 1843.

A dry abstract of the proceedings of a municipal corporation, during the half century which intervened between the evacuation of the city by hostile troops, and the final adoption of the plan of the great work, would be entirely foreign to the pages of a commercial journal. Nor shall we review what was said, in early days, as to the relative advantages of the *Kolck*, as the Dutch inhabitants denominated the *Verscheewater*, or fresh water pond, in later times anglicised (without regard to the meaning of the original term) into Collect, which then existed in what is now a central portion of the town, and of the Bronx, a small river emanating from the Rye pond, in Westchester county, about fourteen miles from the City Hall; and which latter source of supply was, till a recent period, the utmost limit of the views of the boldest of the water projectors. The narrative is, however, not without collateral incidents, that may well merit a passing notice. The public sentiment, in favor of adopting all practicable measures for securing this necessary of life, was not overlooked by the parties who, among the first, availed themselves of the advantages which the bank monopoly, the source of so much corruption in the subsequent legislation of the state, was supposed to impart. And, in 1799, when the city councils had so far matured their plans, in relation to the Bronx river, as to make an application to the legislature for the requisite powers, we find even the honored name of Alexander Hamilton associated with that of the political rival to whom he sacrificed his life, in counteracting their measures, in order, under the pretext of furnishing water by a joint stock company, to obtain perpetual corporate powers for a bank. The city, itself, by the offer of the contingent profit on an amount of stock, not exceeding one-twentieth of the capital of the institution, was content to surrender forever one of the most obvious of municipal rights and duties. To the real motive of the act, which was covertly expressed under the general terms, allowing the corporation to employ their surplus capital in the purchase of public stock, "or in any other moneyed transaction not incompatible with the constitution of the state, or of the United States," as is sufficiently evidenced by the necessity that called forth the present work, were its ostensible objects sacrificed. "It was," says the memoir, "indeed soon felt that the promise of a supply from the Manhattan water was delusive. Although privileged by their charter to go over the whole island of New York, and into Westchester county, to seek for good water, the company contented themselves with sinking a large well at the corner of Duane and Cross streets, in one of the most thickly settled portions of the city, and thence pumped up that which they called pure and wholesome, but which was necessarily most impure."

But the impolicy of relying on joint stock companies seems not to have been sufficiently manifested by the failure of the Manhattan bank to fulfil their avowed intentions; and, before the city entered on the business on its own behalf, three other companies were incorporated, either for the sole purpose of supplying pure and wholesome water, or with the incidental duty and privilege of so doing.

An idea was also suggested of supplying the city from Artesian wells; and the refutation of the project illustrates the great saving of expenditure on impracticable schemes, which the science of geology has effected. Artesian wells require the existence of a pervious stratum, placed between two impervious ones, and the percolation of the water from a point higher than that to which it is desired that it should rise. The basin of Paris,

where the well of Grenelle is situated, is of great extent. The sources, which flow in the gravel below the limestone, and which are at the depth of 440 yards, are the same as supply the wells of St. Ouen and St. Denis. It was ascertained, from the rise of the water in the well at Elbeuf, which was more elevated above the sea than that at Grenelle, that the infiltration was higher than the orifice to which it was to rise. The water to be obtained from New York island is not supplied from sources beyond its limits. All the fresh water to be procured there falls directly from the clouds, is absorbed in the earth, and carries with it all the salt, filth, and other matters, which it is capable of dissolving. These ingredients, of course, affect the water of all the city wells. But not only was the water obtained in the city of an impure character, but the annual fall, after deducting the amount lost by evaporation, or carried off in various ways from the surface, was wholly inadequate to the purpose of affording a supply.

It seems to have been the idea that not only was water to be obtained by boring, but that the marshy and low grounds afforded the best localities for the purpose, without any regard to the filth through which the water must have previously percolated. Accordingly, an attempt was made for the purpose, in 1824, in what had been Beekman's swamp, and which has been subsequently used for the various tanneries established within the city. "The projector began his operations," says Mr. Cozens, the geologist of the island; "passed through the made ground on the top, and came to the old swamp, with all its black mould, its remains of peat, roots of trees, and other materials, such as are known to be in these places, but no fresh water appeared. On the contrary, it was hard, and of bad odor. What was to be done? After so much money, no good water! "Why, it is a mineral spring;" said one. "The corporation should certainly purchase it," said another; "there is no doubt but it will cure all diseases." A petition, to this effect, was sent in, and a committee of the common council appointed for the purpose. There was no action, indeed, on the part of the municipal legislature, thanks to the advice of a man of science, to whom the committee addressed themselves; but the proprietors, for a time, practised on the credulity of their fellow-citizens, by vending this noxious fluid as a mineral water, possessing valuable medicinal qualities.

Among the plans suggested, without meeting with success, is one which, from its striking character, cannot be passed by unnoticed. It was proposed to erect a permanent dam across the Hudson, from the New York to the New Jersey shore, with such an elevation above high tide as would prevent the influx of the salt water; but, though the projector offered to effect this at a cost not exceeding one-tenth of the outlay for the Croton aqueduct, and promised that several collateral advantages would accrue from it, it need hardly be stated that the suggestion received no attention from those to whom it was submitted. To say nothing of the constitutional difficulty of obstructing a navigable river, it was justly supposed that anything which jeopardized the commercial facilities which New York possessed, was not lightly to be attempted.

The first recommendation of the Croton, as the stream on which the city was to rely, was made in December, 1832, by the late De Witt Clinton, a civil engineer, and a son of the distinguished individual whose name he bore. He proposed an open canal, like that of the New river,

and estimated the expense, including the distributing reservoir on the island, at \$2,500,000. The report of Mr. Clinton was followed by the act of 1833, under which the *reconnaissance* of Major Douglas, fixing definitively on the Croton as the source of supply, was made; and, by a law of the subsequent year, the present plan of the waterworks was submitted to the electors at large, to be decided by their ballots. The result of that reference, so honorable to the enterprise of the city, has been already narrated; nor is it to be forgotten that this expression of public sentiment preceded, by several months, the destructive conflagration of December, 1835, by which twenty millions of property were annihilated, and which was so well calculated to prove the value of the waterworks for other than domestic purposes.

The plan, which was thus laid before the people, and which has been followed in all its parts, except in deviating from the level in crossing the Harlem river and Manhattan valley, both of which alterations detract greatly from the magnificence, if not from the utility of the work, was prepared by Major Douglas, an alumnus, and subsequently a professor of that eminently scientific institution, the Military Academy at West Point, and who, after having been distinguished alike as a civil and military engineer, now presides over the first seminary of the west. The works of the aqueduct commence about six miles above the mouth of the Croton, which empties into the Hudson about thirty-six miles from New York. At the inlet for the Croton, a dam has been constructed to elevate the water 166 feet above mean tide, the distance from which to the distributing reservoir is 40.562 miles, of which 37.067 miles are of masonry conduit, and the remainder consists either of iron pipes or of the length of the passage through the reservoirs. To this extent, may be added the dam and other works required to obtain the Croton at the proper elevation, and which would make the aqueduct 45.562 miles; while the large mains from the distributing reservoirs through the central parts of the city would add five miles, making altogether about fifty miles. As to the difficulties, which the nature of the country presented, it may be stated that there are on the line sixteen tunnels, varying from 160 to 1,263 feet, and making an aggregate length of 6,841 feet. In the course, through Westchester county alone, there are twenty-five streams crossing the line of the aqueduct, and numerous vallies, while the passing of the Manhattan and Clendining vallies, on New York island, constitute, after the bridge over the Harlem river, the most prominent incidents of the work. The bottom of the conduit is an inverted arch, and the roofing arch is an inverted semicircle; the greatest interior width is 7 feet 5 inches, and the greatest height 8 feet 5½ inches. There have been constructed of stone, laid in hydraulic cement, 114 culverts, whose aggregate length is 7,959 feet, with a space varying from a foot and a half to twenty-five feet, and also five road culverts of from fourteen to twenty feet space. The thirty-three ventilators intended to give free circulation of air, and whose elevation presents a prominent object to the eye throughout the route—the waste weirs and the other appendages of the water-works, we cannot enter sufficiently into detail to describe. The Manhattan valley is passed merely by iron pipes laid as syphons, but the Clendining bridge, which is so constructed as to allow the streets that may hereafter be required to pass under it, is a finished piece of masonry, while the receiving and distributing reservoirs, the former of which contains upwards of thirty-five acres, and has a ca-

capacity for 150,000,000 imperial gallons, and the latter for 20,000,000 gallons, are so familiar to all visitors to New York as to render a minute description of them unnecessary. The Croton reservoir contains about 400 acres of land, and is available for 500,000,000 imperial gallons above the level, that would allow the aqueduct to discharge 35,000,000 gallons per day. The minimum flow of the Croton is 27,000,000 of gallons. We may also remark that, from the water being distributed by its own head, there is no expenditure for forcing pumps or engines.

As a work of art, in magnificence and costliness surpassing any similar structure in our country, we may refer to the Harlem bridge. In the original plan of Major Douglas, this river, as well as the Manhattan valley, was to be passed without any other deviation from the uniform level than the requisite flow of the waters throughout the whole extent required, it being considered that any additional expense over inverted syphons, which the former plan might require, would be more than compensated by the exemption from repairs, and by the greater certainty of a continuous regular supply of water. The crossing at Harlem river was proposed to be effected by means of an aqueduct bridge 1,188 feet in length, which was subsequently found would be 1,450 feet, 620 of which were in the river, and consisting of nine plain semicircular arches. The height of the structure was to have been 126 feet, which was afterwards stated at 163 feet above the rock, or 138 feet above mean tide. This work, as the able engineer remarked, though no mean enterprise, was far from an impracticable one; and the aqueduct of Alcantara, near Lisbon, with its thirty-five arches, of 100 feet span, and 230 feet height, of Caserta, with its ninety arches, and 178 feet height, of Spoleto, with its ten arches 300 feet height, and of the iron canal of Pontcyville, resting on eighteen piers of brick, 120 feet in elevation, were cited to prove its feasibility. Unfortunately, owing to collisions between the chief engineer and the commissioners to whom, according to the system prevalent in this country, the superintendence of the work was confided, and who, as is ordinarily the case whether the enterprise is of a public or a private nature, were selected without reference to scientific qualifications, Major Douglas was, at an early day, obliged to discontinue his connection with the aqueduct, and his successor, educated in a wholly different school, however competent to the mechanical execution of the work, had none of the enlarged views which influenced the engineer with whom the plan originated. The work was beginning to overrun the previous estimates, and a false economy, looking to immediate, without regard to remote results, induced a deviation from Major Douglas's plan in crossing both the Manhattan valley and the Harlem river, by the insertion of inverted syphons, and whereby, in the latter case, with the exception of a single opening of eighty feet wide by fifty feet in height, the waters were to be effectually dammed up. The Harlem river, being, however, a navigable water, and which, with a little expenditure, would afford a complete circumnavigation of the island, the legislature interposed. The commissioners, declining the alternative proffered of making a tunnel under the river, adopted such an elevation as would not interfere with the use of the river for the purposes of commerce; but, instead of pursuing the level, they combined the two plans of syphon and high bridge. They also disregarded the suggestion of the original engineer, to combine with the aqueduct a viaduct, by which New York, with comparatively little additional charge, might have possessed

the most magnificent outlet of any city of the universe. The bridge which was decided on, and is now nearly half completed, is, by the plan, to be supported by seven land arches, each of fifty feet span, on the valley between the river and the adjacent hills, and over the river by eight arches of eighty feet span, each. The crown of the intrados of the arches is 100 feet above the surface of the water, and the height of the superstructure 120 feet.

The cost of the whole work, after the completion of the Harlem bridge, will exceed \$12,500,000, in which sum, however, is included the interest on previous outlays to the time that the aqueduct went into operation. It may be remarked, as honorable to the foresight of the council, by whom the enterprise was directed, that, despite of all changes of partisan politics, no interruption like that which has led to so great an annihilation of property by the suspension of other public improvements, when half completed, ever occurred in this case. Though the city was compelled to raise the interest on its loans to a rate much beyond what was anticipated, at the outset of the undertaking, and submit to other apparent sacrifices, yet they allowed no false economy to interfere with the prosecution of their measures, but persevered uninterruptedly in their enterprise till its completion. Nor ought we, when some even of the sovereign states of the Union have brought the American character into disrepute, by the repudiation of their plighted faith, to overlook the fact that not only is there provision made for the payment of the interest, amounting annually to \$665,000 on the debt incurred for the construction of the Croton water-works, but that the whole revenue, from this work, with the other resources of the city sinking fund, is irrevocably pledged to the redemption of the principal, and which will be extinguished as the existing loans fall due, the last of which is payable in 1880. Thus will the pecuniary obligations of New York, incurred in the construction of this gigantic work, be strictly discharged, while the present age will be making a free gift to all subsequent generations of what may well compare with the works which Rome points to, as constituting the most valued monuments of her ancient glory.

It may now be safely asserted, that no town enjoys a more abundant supply of pure water than New York. Its advantages have been experienced in the health and comfort of the inhabitants, and in the great diminution of those destructive conflagrations by which the city was formerly characterized; and the benefit of it is felt, not only in preserving from annihilation so much of the property of the world, but by the proprietors themselves, in the lessened cost of the insurance required to effect their indemnity.

Though not able to boast of the statuary and architectural decorations which distinguished Trevi, and the other fountains of imperial Rome, and which yet serve to mark the pristine riches of Bologna, Sienna, and the other numerous and once independent communities of Italy, and though higher *jets d'eau* of modern origin, like that of Cassel, may be found, yet the fountains already erected at the Bowling Green, the Park, and Union Place, and of which species of embellishment, London and the other British cities are wholly destitute, may be referred to as not surpassed in capacity, for aquatic display, by any similar works, even of the proud capitals of continental Europe. Though, as the author of the memoir states, two of the New York fountains daily throw away more water than would

suffice for the supply of other large cities, the quantity with which they are furnished, is not, like that exhibited in the Tuilleries, subtracted from the necessary demands of the people. In Paris, though the canal de l'Ourcq, a work fifty-eight miles in length, introduces daily 20,000,000 of gallons, all of it is expended on the fountains and for cleaning the streets, the inhabitants looking for their demands to what they can procure from the basins or from the Seine. No means exist for raising the water to the upper stories of houses, and the reservoirs of all the private dwellings are filled by the slow and laborious operation of manual labor. In London, the inhabitants are furnished from the Thames by several private companies, who are paid a certain price for the water, no portion of which, as was observed, is used for fountains or other objects of embellishment.

To the aqueduct-bridges of Caserta and of Alcantara, we have already alluded, in speaking of the original plan of that over the Harlem river; and our limits do not suffice to institute comparisons between the arrangements in the other capitals of Europe, including the peculiar characteristics of Turkish aqueducts, whether as contributing to utility or luxury, and the recent work at New York. It may not, however, be irrelevant to remark that most of the continental cities, like Philadelphia, have the advantage of the immediate proximity of fresh water rivers, which render the introduction of them from elsewhere unnecessary; and that, as far as artificial works are required, they are confined to the elevation and distribution of the water. St. Petersburg is not only divided by the Newa, but is traversed by canals. We will finish this part of our subject with the concluding sentence of the work before us; and which, as it was written by the historiographer of a municipal corporation, and on their behalf, will not be deemed an extravagant eulogium on what a single city of our country has effected:—"It is for the future, even more than for the present; and will attest, to other lands and to other times, that, magnificent as may be the works of conquerors and kings, they have not equalled, in forecast of design, and beneficence of result, the noble aqueduct constructed, at their own cost, by the freemen of the single city of New York."

The portion of the work which necessarily elicited the most literary research, is the preliminary essay, in which a very interesting account is given of the most remarkable works of antiquity, in connection with the introduction and conveyance of water. Of this subject, however, we can take but a brief notice. With a people without the knowledge or ability to have recourse to artificial means of supply, the selection of natural wells, or reservoirs, has ever been a most important consideration in the fixing on sites where to pitch their tents, or establish their residence. Mr. King refers to the scriptural allusions to this subject, as well to the pools of Solomon as to the aqueduct, the remains of which are still to be found at Jerusalem. The sites of villages, among the aborigines of our own country, almost always indicate the existence of springs of pure water; while we learn from Mr. Stephens that, in Yucatan, where the absence of rivers in the interior rendered them particularly valuable, natural reservoirs of water, existing at a considerable depth, with orifices of the nature of the Artesian wells, of modern days, were discovered in the various cities visited by him. The aqueducts and fountains of Mexico constituted, at the time of the conquest, some of the most striking illustrations of the civilization and advanced state of the arts in Montezuma's empire.

It is an erroneous idea that the Greeks had no aqueducts. They are spoken of by Pausanias and others; though, ignorant as they were of the arch, it is difficult to ascertain by what means the water was carried across valleys. Those by Pisistratus, at Athens, and Polycrates, at Samos, were rather conduits than ranges of buildings, like the Roman aqueducts. It is, however, at Rome that we find constructions for the conveyance of water, which still continue among the greatest wonders of "the eternal city;" and to them shall we devote the few remaining remarks that we have allowed ourselves to make. Vitruvius gives rules for the construction of aqueducts, which, according to him, might be either of masonry, leaden pipes, or tiles of fictile ware, as well as of the *castellum*, or reservoir. He understood the great hydrodynamical principle, that water always rises of itself, at the delivery, to the height of head whence it flowed; and, though iron pipes were unknown to them, at Lyons, and elsewhere, we find leaden pipes employed, as far as they were capable of sustaining the pressure, in the construction of syphons. The Roman legislation, as to the aqueducts, their minute regulations, as to the administration of these great works, are appropriately introduced into the present treatise. These matters can only be alluded to here, yet it may be remarked that, though the people were gratuitously supplied from the public fountains, the aqueducts were kept in repair by the revenue derived from the tax on the water carried to private houses and gardens. It was in the year 441 of the city, that the *Aqua Appia*, upwards of eleven miles in extent, but of which no traces now remain, was constructed. The *Anio Vetus* followed, forty years afterwards. It began above Tivoli, twenty miles from Rome, but ran circuitously forty-three miles. One hundred and twenty-seven years afterwards, the *Marcia*, whose waters were preferred to all others, was constructed. Its length was 60 miles and 710 paces, of which 54 miles and 247 paces were subterraneous. The arches of the rest, though it had ceased to exist as an aqueduct in the first century, are still remaining in the Campagna. The *Aqua Tepula*, nineteen years afterwards, was the next in order. It was about fifteen miles and a half long, of which seven were above ground. Then followed, thirteen years afterwards, the *Aqua Virginis*, which was about fourteen miles in length. The *Aqua Alsietina*, twenty-two miles and a half, was introduced by Augustus, and repaired by Trajan. It now supplies the fountains of St. Peter's and the Vatican. The *Aqua Claudia*, and the *Anio Novus*, were commenced by Caligula, and finished by Claudius. The whole length of the former was upwards of forty-six miles, of which thirty-six were subterraneous, and the rest was carried over arches; and of the latter, sixty-two miles. Of this last, forty-eight miles were subterraneous; and the arches of the other portion rose, in some instances, to the height of 109 feet. Five additional aqueducts were constructed in the later days of the empire; but of the eight which we have enumerated, the aggregate length was 275 miles; and Frontinus, who lived in the first century, when the population of Rome was computed at from 1,000,000 to 1,200,000, states that the daily supply, from these aqueducts, was 196,000,000 gallons, equal to 196 gallons to each individual. Of this profuse use of water, we may form some conjecture, by a reference to the fact that London, with twice the population, consumes but 37,000,000, or the fifth part of the supply of ancient Rome.

ART. IV.—MANUFACTURE OF SALT IN NEW YORK.

IN the Merchants' Magazine for April, 1843, we published an account of the trade in, and manufacture of, salt in the United States, which we prepared from a variety of official sources. In that article, we embraced the operations of the Onondaga salt springs, belonging to the state of New York, for a series of years, including a full statistical view of the quantity manufactured in 1842, and the amount of tolls collected and paid into the treasury of the state, together with a variety of other information connected with the subject. We now proceed to lay before our readers, derived from the last annual report of the superintendent of the springs, a condensed view of the movement in this branch of manufactures, for 1843. It appears, from this report, that several new establishments were erected in 1843, for the manufacture of salt; the most important of which is one projected by Messrs. Ives, Spencer & Nolton, to which is attached a steam-engine and saw, capable of making three hundred bushels of salt, and sawing from six to eight thousand feet of lumber, per day. Its construction was attended with a large outlay of capital. It has been in operation since August, 1843, and fully answers the expectations of its enterprising proprietors.

A description of this establishment, furnished by the proprietors, will not, we presume, be uninteresting to those of our readers who take an interest in the progress of the resources of the state:—

"We have seventy kettles, of a capacity of about one hundred gallons each, set in brick masonry, in two parallel ranges. In front of each range of kettles, there is a steam-boiler, twenty feet long, and thirty inches diameter, also set in brick masonry. Beneath the front end of each steam-boiler, there is a fire-grate, four feet long, and thirty inches wide.

"The chimney is placed at the end of the range of kettles most remote from the steam-boilers. The flues, for the passage of heat and smoke, extend in a direct line, from the fire-grates under the boilers and kettles, a distance of one hundred and sixty feet, to the chimney.

"The whole is covered by a building one hundred and eighty feet long, and forty feet wide. Adjoining this building, and opposite the boilers, there is another, twenty-five by fifty feet, containing a steam-engine, and machinery for sawing lumber. Adjoining this, there are two reservoirs, each forty feet long, eighteen feet wide, and six feet deep, with six metallic pipes, of four-inch bore, passing through each reservoir lengthwise, about two feet above the bottom. Adjoining these reservoirs, there are other two of like dimensions, but without pipe. The first-named reservoirs are elevated five feet above the other two, and are sufficiently high to discharge their contents into the kettles. The steam-boilers are supplied with fresh water by means of a force-pump, and the kettles are supplied with brine from the last-named reservoirs, which receive their supply from the others which contain the metallic pipe. When the works are in operation, it requires daily six cords of wood for fuel, which is consumed upon the fire-grates beneath the boilers; the heat of which extends beneath the kettles the entire length of the ranges to the chimney, by which means we manufacture in the kettles three hundred bushels of salt daily. The steam generated in the boilers, after propelling the steam-

engine, and machinery for sawing lumber, is conducted through the metallic pipes in the reservoirs, by which means the brine which they contain is heated to about 200° Fahrenheit, and reduced nearly to the point of saturation, and the impurities contained in the brine, in its crude state, are precipitated; after which, it is drawn off into the adjoining reservoirs, to supply the kettles.

"The saw-mill, propelled by the steam-engine, is capable of sawing from six to eight thousand feet of lumber in twenty-four hours."

Henry T. Hooker has also erected salt-works the present season, to which is attached a steam-engine and apparatus capable of making and grinding from seventy-five to one hundred bushels of pure salt per day. We subjoin Mr. Hooker's description of his salt-works:—

"A single arch, of about eighty feet. In front is a steam-boiler, for fresh water. The steam is first applied to an engine; and thence, passing through copper tubes, assists in the manufacture of salt. Next to the boiler is a kiln for drying, the salt being stirred by machinery; then, thirteen kettles complete the arch. In manufacturing salt, the water is first received into a vat about fifty feet in length, four feet wide, and twelve inches deep, which is heated by steam, the copper tube passing through and returning the whole length of the vat. From this vat, the water runs constantly into three of the kettles, and passes from them, through holes drilled near the top of each, as fast as the water is sufficiently boiled, into a narrow vat fifty feet long; and from this into another of the same length, and four feet wide. In each of these vats are partitions, to prevent impurities from passing through. The brine, then, being pure, is pumped into kettles for boiling, and drawn into a vat, where it is evaporated by passing steam through a copper tube. The salt, being dried upon the kiln, and ground by the steam-power, is a pure and beautiful article for table or dairy use."

One of the principal merits of the above establishments, so far as relates to the manufacture of salt, is the separation of the impurities from the brine, before it is drawn into the pans or kettles, where the salting process is completed.

In addition to the above, several establishments have been erected for the exclusive purpose of drying and grinding salt. Among them, the most important is one erected by I. P. Haskins, Esq., of Salina village, capable of drying and grinding from five to eight hundred bushels per day. It has been in operation since August, 1843, and has furnished a large amount of ground or dairy salt, of a superior quality, which would not suffer by a comparison with the best qualities of Liverpool sack salt. It is, in fact, a neater and more desirable article than any hitherto presented to the public. It is put up in bags and sacks, containing from twenty-eight pounds to four bushels; also, in barrels and half barrels, and meets with a ready sale in the eastern market.

Several minor establishments have also been erected, with the same object in view, viz: drying and grinding salt, the machinery of which is operated by horse-power. Very recently, a large establishment has been fitted up in the village of Syracuse, by Messrs. Stevens & Bracket, driven by water-power, supposed capable of furnishing one thousand bushels of ground salt per day. From the extensive preparations that are making for supplying the above article, which competes so successfully in the eastern market with the Liverpool sack salt, no doubt is entertained that from one million to one and a quarter million bushels of Onondaga salt

will be sent to tide-water the coming season, if the law of the 18th April last is not disturbed.

It will be seen, from a table below, that there have been manufactured and inspected, in the town of Salina, (embracing the villages of Salina, Syracuse, Liverpool, and Geddes,) during the year 1843, of coarse, or solar salt, 318,105 bushels; of common, or fine salt, 2,723,863; of ground, or dairy salt, 76,531, with the fractions of bushels; making a grand total of 3,127,500 bushels—being an increase over the preceding year, (1842,) of 835,579. The cause of this large increase is attributed by the superintendent mainly to the operations of the law of April, 1843, giving a bounty on salt delivered at certain points, by securing to the manufacturers markets from which they had hitherto been almost entirely excluded. Although the increase over 1842 is large, but for causes not likely again to occur, it would have been still greater. The following may be assigned as materially affecting the quantity the past season:—The quantity on hand, at the opening of navigation, was much less than usual; owing, in a great measure, to the fact that the manufacturers were deterred from prosecuting their business in the winter, in consequence of heavy losses sustained the previous year, believing that from forty to sixty days would be sufficient to manufacture all the salt that could be sold. Another cause was the high water in the lake, thereby preventing all the manufactories upon the low lands from commencing operations until quite into June. The additional fact that all salt had to remain fourteen days in the bins before it could be packed, tended still farther to postpone the time when new salt, from a majority of the manufactories, could be put into market. The unprecedented bad weather, that commenced about the middle of September, and continued until the close of navigation, had a decided influence in lessening the quantity that would otherwise have been made. But for the above causes, no doubt is entertained that at least 300,000 bushels more would have been made and shipped the past season.

The limited supply of salt in the month of June, which was unavoidable under the circumstances, also operated to raise the price above what had been anticipated; but as soon as the blocks were all in operation, and new salt ready for market, the price immediately fell to what it cost to manufacture it; and the price will not, probably, for a series of years, rise above what a full supply and an active competition shall establish; which will be at the lowest point that it can be manufactured without loss.

The revenue collected from all sources, during the year 1843, was \$207,733 92; from which, deducting all expenses, a balance of \$112,074 54 remained as the nett revenue from salt duties paid into the general fund; being \$30,255 01 more than in 1842. The gain to the canal fund, on salt arriving at tide-water, and the junction of the Erie and Champlain canals, in 1843, over 1842, produced by the operations of the law of 13th of April, 1843, is \$10,217 97.

The following statement will show the amount of salt that has reached tide-water, or the junction of the Erie and Champlain canals, from 1839 to 1843, inclusive, and the revenue derived from the same:—

Year.	Bush. salt.	Duties.	Canal tolls.	Toll on boats.	Tot. revenue
1839,.....	23,440	\$1,406 40	\$553 13	\$117 20	\$2,076 73
1840,.....	13,040	782 40	307 73	65 20	1,115 33
1841,.....	90,985	no duties.	2,149 06	454 92	2,601 98
1842,.....	156,500	no duties.	3,693 08	782 47	4,475 55
1843,.....	536,954	no duties.	4,295 60*	1,533 06	5,828 66

* One-third tolls.

It will be perceived, from the above statement, that, with full tolls and duties, the total revenue on salt delivered at tide-water, in 1840, was only \$1,115 33; that, with no duties, and full tolls, the revenue increased, in 1842, to \$4,475 55; and with no duties, and one-third tolls, it reached, in 1843, to \$5,828 66.

The whole amount of salt inspected at different villages in the town of Salina, during the year 1843, is as follows :—

SALT INSPECTED IN THE TOWN OF SALINA, IN 1843.

1843.	SALINA. Bush. lbs.	SYRACUSE. Bush. lbs.	LIVERPOOL. Bush. lbs.	GEDDES. Bush. lbs.	AGGREGATE. Bush. lbs.
January,.....	2,063.24	5,019.08	1,853.00	653.54	9,589.30
February,.....	6,249.00	13,562.31	4,026.17	5,331.42	29,169.34
March,.....	3,512.34	9,113.03	2,571.50	2,024.26	17,222.01
April,.....	1,736.08	1,571.16	8,062.28	88.08	11,458.04
4 weeks ending May 28,	102,002.05	54,735.15	58,239.42	12,466.54	227,444.04
“ June 24,	87,095.48	80,876.36	33,758.44	12,931.08	214,662.24
“ July 22,	184,052.16	163,339.50	74,651.35	34,493.16	456,537.05
“ Aug. 19,	229,382.14	143,159.10	107,863.54	43,356.31	523,761.53
“ Sept. 16,	168,165.00	139,766.28	97,127.37	38,310.46	443,369.55
“ Oct. 14,	201,205.18	148,316.22	107,178.24	41,075.05	497,775.13
“ Nov. 11,	165,145.24	125,923.12	105,595.28	50,227.12	446,891.20
“ Dec. 9,	49,758.00	83,422.29	73,467.10	33,797.17	240,445.00
3 “ Dec. 31,	2,770.33	5,015.52	809.41	578.16	9,174.30

Total amount,.....	1,203,138.00	973,821.32	675,206.18	275,334.55	3,127,500.49
Coarse salt,.....					318,105.34
Fine “.....					2,732,863.43
Dairy “.....					76,531.28

Total,..... 3,127,500.49

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF SALINA, IN 1843.

1843.	COARSE. Bush. lbs.	FINE. Bush. lbs.	DAIRY. Bush. lbs.	AGGREGATE. Bush. lbs.
January,.....	0.00	2,039.46	23.34	2,063.24
February,.....	0.00	6,249.00	0.00	6,249.00
March,.....	0.00	3,468.30	44.04	3,512.34
April,.....	0.00	1,714.04	22.04	1,736.08
4 weeks ending May 27,	0.00	101,360.29	641.32	102,002.05
“ June 24,	0.00	86,216.45	879.03	87,095.48
“ July 22,	0.00	182,304.31	1,747.41	184,052.16
“ Aug. 19,	13.24	227,322.34	2,046.12	229,382.14
“ Sept. 16,	1,001.04	163,603.36	3,560.16	168,165.00
“ Oct. 14,	1,194.06	192,238.24	7,772.44	201,205.18
“ Nov. 11,	3,113.12	152,193.36	9,838.32	165,145.24
“ Dec. 9,	78.32	44,407.24	5,272.00	49,758.00
3 “ Dec. 30,	0.00	2,720.33	50.00	2,770.33

Total amount,..... 5,400.22 1,165,839.36 31,897.54 1,203,138.00

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF SYRACUSE, IN 1843.

1843.	COARSE. Bush. lbs.	FINE. Bush. lbs.	DAIRY. Bush. lbs.	AGGREGATE. Bush. lbs.
January,.....	119.28	4,752.30	147.06	5,019.08
February,.....	119.35	13,032.13	410.39	13,562.31
March,.....	62.02	8,741.46	309.11	9,113.03
April,.....	0.00	1,435.22	135.50	1,571.16
4 weeks ending May 27,	7,270.22	42,890.41	4,574.08	54,735.15
“ June 24,	31,506.38	44,292.18	5,077.36	80,876.36
“ July 22,	52,140.04	106,738.28	4,461.18	163,339.50

Manufacture of Salt in New York.

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF SYRACUSE—Continued.

		COARSE.	FINE.	DAIRY.	AGGREGATE.
		Bush. lbs.	Bush. lbs.	Bush. lbs.	Bush. lbs.
1843.					
4 weeks ending	Aug. 19,	43,754.22	94,752.02	4,652.42	143,159.10
"	Sept. 10,	49,515.09	86,474.06	3,777.13	139,766.28
"	Oct. 14,	50,342.17	92,950.32	5,023.29	148,316.22
"	Nov. 11,	37,787.35	82,041.26	6,094.07	125,923.12
"	Dec. 9,	14,311.35	65,135.32	3,975.18	83,422.29
3	Dec. 30,	594.17	4,324.35	97.00	5,015.52
Total amount,.....		287,523.40	647,561.51	38,735.53	973,821.32

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF GEDDES, IN 1843.

		COARSE.	FINE.	DAIRY.	AGGREGATE.
		Bush. lbs.	Bush. lbs.	Bush. lbs.	Bush. lbs.
1843.					
January,.....		21.44	629.10	3.00	653.54
February,.....		2,133.26	3,157.46	40.26	5,331.42
March,.....		32.30	1,923.42	68.10	2,024.26
April,.....		0.00	72.12	15.52	88.08
4 weeks ending	May 27,	331.34	11,193.48	941.28	12,466.54
"	June 24,	36.34	11,840.16	1,054.14	12,931.08
"	July 22,	1,333.12	32,149.08	1,010.52	34,493.16
"	Aug. 19,	4,101.18	38,658.03	597.10	43,356.31
"	Sept. 16,	2,365.50	35,475.31	469.21	38,310.46
"	Oct. 14,	5,842.12	35,090.45	142.04	41,075.05
"	Nov. 11,	7,618.51	41,577.15	1,031.02	50,227.12
"	Dec. 9,	1,320.33	31,960.02	516.38	33,797.17
3	Dec. 30,	43.20	527.52	7.00	578.16
Total amount,.....		25,181.28	244,255.50	5,897.33	275,334.55

SALT INSPECTED IN THE VILLAGE OF LIVERPOOL, IN 1843.

1843.	FINE SALT. Bushels.	1843.	FINE SALT. Bushels.
January,.....	1,853.00	4 weeks, ending	Sept. 16,....
February,.....	4,026.17	"	Oct. 14,....
March,.....	2,571.50	"	Nov. 11,....
April,.....	8,062.28	"	Dec. 9,....
4 weeks, ending	May 27,....	3	Dec. 30,....
"	June 24,....		
"	July 22,....		
"	Aug. 19,....		
		Total amount,.....	675,206.18

The amount of salt duties paid into the canal fund, from 1817 to the 18th of July, 1836, is as follows:—

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
1817,.....	\$2,926 28	1828,.....	\$118,423 89
1818,.....	48,784 27	1829,.....	157,160 58
1819,.....	54,410 69	1830,.....	163,421 55
1820,.....	67,038 67	1831,.....	98,703 91
1821,.....	46,345 24	1832,.....	179,096 46
1822,.....	65,416 37	1833,.....	227,860 05
1823,.....	102,221 64	1834,.....	160,782 98
1824,.....	99,211 18	1835,.....	118,364 92
1825,.....	71,222 75	1836,.....	64,763 46
1826,.....	83,272 59		
1827,.....	126,030 58	Total,.....	\$2,055,458 06

We subjoin a statement of the amount of salt imported into the United States during the year ending 30th September, 1842,* and the value

* For a similar statement for 1841, see article on the "Trade and Manufacture of Salt in the United States," Merchants' Magazine, for October, 1843, Vol. VIII, No. IV., p. 358.

thereof, and the country from whence imported, and the value per bushel:—

Whence imported.	Quantity. Bushels.	Val. per bush. Cents.	Tot. value.
Swedish West Indies,.....	7,535	6	\$479
Danish West Indies,.....	19,291	8	1,466
Dutch West Indies,.....	212,894	8	16,208
England,.....	3,300,749	18	607,761
Scotland,.....	8,603	19	1,608
Ireland,.....	91,932	19	17,625
British West Indies,.....	1,307,080	8	102,479
British American colonies,.....	14,593	21	3,040
France on the Atlantic,.....	18,612	13	2,397
France on the Mediterranean,.....	43,024	6	2,665
French West Indies,.....	8,899	8	707
Spain on the Atlantic,.....	459,176	9	41,573
Spain on the Mediterranean,.....	39,888	6	2,332
Cuba,.....	382	22	83
Other Spanish West Indies,.....	1,627	6	97
Portugal,.....	429,567	8	32,572
Cape de Verd Islands,.....	4,982	8	397
Italy,.....	46,620	4	1,804
Sicily,.....	148,188	3	5,090
Mexico,.....	174	2	33
Cisplatine Republic,.....	1,761	14	251
Argentine ".....	12,104	6	716
Uncertain places,.....	1,062	18	189
Total,.....	6,178,743		\$841,572

ART. V.—CONSULAR SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

IN the senate of the United States, February 21, 1844, the Hon. James Simple, of Illinois, introduced a bill to remodel the consular establishment of the United States, which was read twice, referred to the committee of commerce, and ordered to be printed. An official copy of this bill is before us, the most important provisions of which are, that no person shall be appointed consul, vice consul, or commercial agent, who is not a citizen of the United States; that no consul or commercial agent, &c., shall directly or indirectly engage in commerce, or receive or share any profits thereof, under the penalty of being recalled, and fined in a sum not exceeding ten thousand dollars. Consuls are to receive, in lieu of commercial privileges, fixed salaries. Our present system is quite defective, but the reforms proposed in the bill appear to meet the demands of the mercantile community, and we earnestly hope it may become a law without any material alteration or amendment.

We have in our possession, in manuscript, a Treatise on Consuls, written by an American consul in the early part of the present century, now deceased; and as one of the chapters discusses some of the reforms proposed in this bill, we take the liberty of publishing it, for the benefit of our congressional readers.*

* The reader is also referred to an article on the Consular System of the United States, in the Merchants' Magazine, for April, 1842, Vol. VI., No. IV., pp. 297 to 305.

UGHT NOT CONSULS TO BE DEBARRED FROM CARRYING ON TRADE AS MERCHANTS?

Under the present consular system of the United States, a consul may be a merchant; indeed, the consular office is considered and solicited by the far greater number of candidates, rather as the *means* of extending their commercial credit than the *end* to which they aspire. While this continues to be the case, and while human nature remains unchanged, can we hope to see the duties of that office discharged with that degree of independence and disinterestedness which ought to characterize the conduct of all officers of every government, and more especially those of the United States?

In a book, whose precepts we are all taught from our earliest infancy to revere, it is written: "No man can serve two masters, for either he will hate the one and love the other, or else he will hold to the one and despise the other;" and a modern French writer of eminence, in a work lately published, says, "*Lorsque l'intérêt est appelé au conseil il fait changer de direction aux avis*"—*When interest is called into counsel it gives a different direction to advice.* In what stronger terms can be painted the incompatibility of the duties of the consul with the interests of the merchant, united in the same person? It is the duty of the consul carefully to watch over the commercial interests of his country, to detect fraud and expose the abuses of the flag under whatever form, to extend his protection equally to all his fellow-citizens in the lawful pursuits of their business or their pleasure; and although, by the instructions from the department of state, the consuls of the United States are informed that no "judicial authority belongs to their office except what may be expressly given by a law of the United States," it nevertheless frequently happens that their amicable interference might produce the happiest effects in reconciling conflicting interests if referred to as umpires. But so long as the consul continues to be a merchant, how can it be expected that he should so far divest himself of human weakness as to decide with impartiality between two persons, one of whom it may be his own private interest to serve even at the expense of the other? For example, let us suppose two American ships entering a foreign port, one of which is consigned to the consul merchant; that during their stay in port, some altercation should take place between the masters of the two ships, and that the point in dispute should be referred to the consul of their country, the natural protector of the rights and interests of his fellow-citizens, and the organ of his government; is there anything unnatural in the conclusion that, unless the consul forms an exception to the great mass of mankind, his award will be inclined to favor, as far as possible without committing his reputation, the interests of the man whose ship is consigned to him as a merchant? If, instead of the case just supposed, the two captains should be involved in difficulties with the local authorities, a thing by no means impossible, can it be believed that the merchant consul would neglect his commercial concerns to extend an equal protection to the man in whom he has no immediate personal interest, and to him who, to use a vulgar expression, "brings a grist to his mill?"

In the American courts of justice, the wife is not permitted to give evidence for her husband. And the 91st section of the "act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage," provides, "that if any offi-

cer or other person entitled to a part or share of any of the fines, penalties, or forfeitures, incurred in virtue of this act, shall be necessary as a witness on the trial for such fine, penalty, or forfeiture, such officer or other person may be a witness upon the said trial; but in such case he shall not receive, nor be entitled to any part or share of the said fine, penalty, or forfeiture, and the part or share to which he otherwise would have been entitled shall revert to the United States." Thus, in this case, has the wisdom of the legislature precluded almost the possibility of interested *testimony*.

And yet, by a sort of anomaly, the American consul merchant, endowed with two separate and distinct characters, two souls in one body, can at one and the same time be a magistrate and witness in his own cause; as in the case of drawback certificates, the consul A. B. administers the oath to A. B., merchant and consignee, who kisses the book and signs the certificate in his quality of merchant; and then, assuming a magisterial air, "sets his hand and seal of office" to the same instrument in his quality of consul.

To this may be added the strife and animosity created by rival interests, which will inevitably exist between the merchant consul and his commercial countrymen residing in the same place; those bickerings, backbitings, and overreachings, which destroy social harmony between individuals of the same trade and nation, particularly in a foreign country;* and, by weakening the respect due to the man, weaken at the same time that due to the office.

When a public officer is subject to be treated with disrespect by his own countrymen, he will not long be respected by the inhabitants of the country where he resides; and it is, in my humble opinion, far better not to be represented abroad, than to subject our representatives to become "a laughing-stock and a by-word" in the places of their residence.

Interest, either direct or collateral, is the great governing principle of the mass of mankind. It is not contended that every man is guided by his immediate *pecuniary interest*: for instance, the man who refused a morsel of bread to a poor mendicant, was, I believe, no one will pretend to doubt, actuated by immediate pecuniary interest, and loved his money more than the pleasure he would have felt in doing good to the *temporal* state of a fellow being; but when the same man afterwards gave one hundred dollars towards the support of a theological seminary, he was no doubt influenced by an interest of a different nature. Here, the *spiritual* welfare of many of his fellow creatures was concerned; here, he would be likely to be cited as one of the worthy patrons of that noble institution, where youth "are trained up in the way they should go," and prepared to carry "the balm of peace and the word of salvation" to the utmost corners of the earth; by them, his fame could be spread as "before the four winds of heaven;" and it is evident that the satisfaction he would derive from having performed this laudable act, was greater than that which the hundred dollars could have procured him in any other way; while the common everyday act, of giving a piece of bread, could furnish no occupation to the busy tongue of fame—no criterion to judge of his

* I have been assured that a number of American merchants now resident at Marseilles, have become, from a similarity of pursuits and a spirit of commercial jealousy, so inimical towards each other that they do not speak together.

fortune and his generosity. In America, everybody can give a piece of bread, while comparatively few can afford to give a hundred dollars.

The English barber, who suffered his indigent father to perish in the street rather than to pay fifty pounds for his admission in the hospital, and who, in his last will, bequeathed two hundred pounds to the poor, doubtless felt more interest in transmitting his name and the record of his *generosity* to posterity, on his tombstone, than in performing an act of filial duty, the remembrance of which could not probably have long survived himself.

After this digression, which I have deemed necessary to show that by the word interest, money is not always meant, though it be a lamentable fact that many more people than would be willing to avow it strictly, follow the advice of the miser to his son, "GET MONEY!—honestly, if you can," I resume the thread of my inquiries.

Will it be believed that, during the existence of the Berlin and Milan decrees, the British orders in council, and the restrictive measures of our own government, no merchant consul of the United States, in foreign ports, took part in the collusive traffic carried on under our flag? Did not an American consul, in one of the principal ports of France, purchase an American ship that had been condemned by the imperial prize court, fraudulently obtain her original register, and finally procure for her a new register in the United States, in direct violation of our laws? Was not the same consul afterwards concerned in fitting out another ship from a port in France, which ship was similarly circumstanced, advertised her as a "*parlementaire*," and, in conjunction with a certain Mr. Boutet, and the house of Loriolle and Dagneau, of Dunkirk, most unconsciously cheat one hundred and fourteen passengers into the belief of their security, and after receiving the far greater portion of the passage money, put the ship to sea, where she was captured, and anchored a prize in England within twelve hours after leaving the port. And did he not make a verbal agreement with Henry Preble, an American merchant, then residing at Paris, and agent for the original owners of said ship, for her *register*, which he knew he could not lawfully hold, and was not the bargain broken off, because Henry Preble asked a larger sum for the register than was first agreed for? Did not the same American merchant consul, in the winter of 1811-12, send a number of trunks of merchandise to Cherbourg in the hope of being able to ship them on board a United States ship of war, to the United States; and did he not give instructions to his correspondent at Cherbourg, to offer the commander of the said ship one hundred dollars for every trunk, to receive them on board, in violation of the 23d article of the 1st section of the law of Congress, entitled "an act for the better government of the navy of the United States," passed on the 23d day of April, 1800, which provides that, "if any commander or other officer, shall receive, or permit to be received, on board his vessel, any goods or merchandise, other than for the sole use of his vessel, except gold, silver, or jewels, and except the goods or merchandise of vessels which may be in distress, or shipwrecked, or in imminent danger of being shipwrecked, in order to preserve them for their owner, without orders from the president of the United States, or the navy department, he shall, on conviction thereof, be cashiered, and be incapacitated, for ever afterwards, for any place or office in the navy."

Was not another American citizen, established as a merchant in a port

of France, where, for several years, he exercised the office of American consul, with the knowledge and consent of the American government, though without being constitutionally appointed, concerned in the license trade between France and England, a trade which, without being in direct violation of the letter of the United States laws, was, nevertheless, in evident contradiction to the *spirit* thereof? And did not the same gentleman, while in the exercise of the functions of United States consul, for the port of —, and during the existence of war, as well between the United States and Great Britain, as between the latter power and France, go to England in the assumed character of *second mate* of a neutral ship, land at Plymouth, proceed to London to transact commercial business, and return to his port undetected?

Whether there was anything improper in this act or not, when considered in a merely commercial point of view, I shall not attempt to determine; but I have no hesitation in saying, and I believe every reflecting man will join with me, that it was highly improper in the consul. But, as has already been said, when speaking of Mr. Patterson, the principal fault lay with the government, for not providing for the support of consuls, and forbidding them to transact commercial business. It would be no very difficult task to multiply examples of the above nature to any desirable extent, but it is believed that these will be sufficient to convince any candid man of the impropriety of connecting the two characters of consul and merchant in the same person. If not, let it be remembered that, as I have already said, the consular office is considered as a secondary object, or rather as an accessory means of obtaining the great primary point, commercial consideration and consequent wealth. The merchant consul, occupied exclusively with his speculations, confides the discharge of his official duties to a clerk in his counting-house, and merely deigns to sign the papers prepared for his signature, without occupying himself with any of the details. It is true, he is obliged to give bonds, to the amount of two to ten thousand dollars, for the faithful discharge of the duties of his office. I believe more than two thousand dollars are never asked; but if any misdemeanors should be committed by the clerks, specially charged with this department, who is to prosecute, when it is well known that the trouble and expense of such a suit would far overbalance any emolument to be derived from its most fortunate issue? Besides, how easy would it be for the delinquent to plead, and to prove, in case of need, that the offence originated in a mistake, which pressure of commercial business did not permit him to discover and rectify?

In cases of great importance, some may be tempted to act upon the same principles with the master and owner of an American vessel, burnt at sea by a French squadron, and who preserved the vessel's register. He proposed selling the register, or applying it to another vessel not American. When it was observed to him that, by so doing, he would forfeit his bonds at the custom-house, he replied, "I do not mind forfeiting my bonds, if I can make double the sum by disposing of my register." And, in similar instances, what compensation would two thousand dollars be to the United States for the abuses which might be practised under their flag; and the want of consideration and respect which such acts might give rise to on the part of foreign nations, and which we could not, in justice, blame them for? And with what face could we call foreign

governments to an account for not respecting us, so long as we do not respect ourselves?

Does not the government know that, during our neutral carrying trade, many merchants, and among them some consul merchants, were concerned in covering property belonging to the belligerent nations, and did not those transactions tend greatly to lessen the respect paid to our flag? The situation in which we were then placed, in relation to the powers of Europe, is not likely again soon to recur; nevertheless, what has once happened may again happen, and if your consuls continue to be merchants, there can be but little doubt that some amongst the number will be found who will prefer their commercial emoluments to their official credit. A prudent pilot avails himself of the fine weather to put his ship in a situation to withstand the shocks of a tempest which he knows may succeed, though he does not know how soon.

A very celebrated writer has said, with great justice, that "a man should never be placed in a situation to balance between his interest and his integrity."

By the 86th section of the act, entitled "an act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage," passed on the 2d day of March, 1799, it is enacted, "that no officer of the customs or other person employed under the authority of the United States, in the collection of duties imposed by law on goods, wares, or merchandise, imported in the United States, and on the tonnage of ships or vessels, shall own, either in whole or in part, any ship or vessel, or act as agent, attorney, or consignee, for the owner or owners of any ship or vessel, or of any cargo or lading on board the same; nor shall any officers of the customs, or other person employed in the collection of the duties, as aforesaid, import, or be concerned directly or indirectly in the importation of any goods, wares, or merchandise, for sale, into the United States, on penalty that every person so offending, and being thereof convicted, shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars."

It is believed that consuls should, in this respect, be assimilated to the officers of the customs, or that the law should be even more severe against the former, for this simple reason, that the officers of the customs being in the United States and subject to the lash of our free press, any malversation, on their part, would be immediately exposed to public animadversion and the censure of the government, whereas the consul, being at a distance, a considerable time must necessarily elapse, and abuses may be carried to a great length before government can be sufficiently informed of their existence to apply a remedy; besides, in all cases of this nature, a legal preventative is preferable to any remedy, however prompt, or however severe may be its application.

By the 5th section of the act of May 1st, 1810, it is enacted, "that, from and after the 1st day of November next, no consul of the United States, residing on the Barbary coast, shall own, in whole or in part, any ship or vessel, to be concerned directly or indirectly in the exportation from, or the importation to, any of the states of Barbary, of any goods, wares, or merchandise, on penalty, that every consul so offending, and being thereof convicted, shall for every offence forfeit a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars."

This law, while it excludes consuls, on the Barbary coast, from owning ships engaged in trade with the places of their residence, permits, be-

cause it does not forbid them, to own ships in any other trade, and to be commission merchants, or to import and export merchandise as much as they please for their own account, provided it be done in other people's vessels.

Nevertheless, if this law, with all its imperfections, had been extended to all other consuls, it would have been advancing one step towards the goal at which we ought to aim.

Consuls ought not to be allowed to own ships, because such ships will not, in time of war, be considered as neutral, if the owner resides in a belligerent country. And to permit them to hold registered ships, is a measure equally impolitic and unjust on the part of the government; it is impolitic, because, until the maritime powers of Europe consent to insert a new article in the law of nations, the nation must go to war to protect the property of its consuls, and thus subject a still greater number of ships to be captured. It is unjust, because the government implicitly promises an equal protection to all ships which it allows to bear the national flag, an engagement which it has it not in its power to fulfil, in relation to ships owned by consuls. Thus, in permitting them to hold registered ships, it leads them into a false security respecting the safety of their property, which, in reality, is not more safe under the flag of their country than it would be under that of the belligerent power in whose dominions they reside.

Sir William Scott, in pronouncing judgment on the ship "Indian Chief," says,* no position is more established than this, that if a person goes into another country, "and engages in trade, and resides there, he is, by the law of nations, to be considered as a merchant of that country." Again, in his judgment on the cargo of the same ship, p. 27, he says: "These cases were again brought forward to notice, in the case of *Mr. Fenwick, American consul* at Bordeaux, in the beginning of this war; on whose behalf a distinction was set up in favor of American consuls, as being persons not usually appointed as the consuls of other nations are, from among the resident merchants of the foreign country, but specially delegated from *America*, and sent to *Europe* principally in a mere consular character. But in that case, as well as in the case of *Sylvanus Bourne, American consul* at Amsterdam, where the same distinction was attempted, it was held that, if an American consul *did* engage in commerce, there was no more reason for giving his mercantile character the benefit of his official character, than existed in the case of any other consul. The moment he engaged in trade, the pretended ground of any distinction ceased; the whole of that question, therefore, is as much shut up and concluded as any question of law can be."

It may indeed be doubted whether, in justice or sound policy, we ought to wish the establishment of a principle which would exempt the ships of the merchant consul from the operation of hostilities against the country of his residence; its adoption would open a wide field to fraud and double dealing; and the consul, however honest, surrounded as he would be by temptation, and perhaps, also, by a needy family, would, it is greatly to be feared, give but too much reason to say of him, "the spirit indeed was willing, but the flesh was weak."

Our venerable Adams, who was always a sound republican at heart,

* 5 Robinson's Admiralty Reports, vol. iii., p. 18.

but who, unfortunately, had too much confidence in Hamilton, Pickering, &c., in his letter to the immortal Washington, under date of August 29th, 1790, published in Niles' Weekly Register, when speaking of our diplomatic establishment, says: "It is a misfortune that, in these critical moments and circumstances, the United States have not a minister of *large views, mature age, information and judgment, and strict integrity*, at the courts of France, Spain, London, and the Hague; early and authentic intelligence from those courts, may be of more importance than the expense. But as the representatives of the people, as well as of the legislatures, are of a different opinion, they have made a very scanty provision for but a part of such a system. As it is, God knows where the men are to be found who are qualified for such missions and would undertake them. By an experience of ten years, which made me too unhappy at the time to be ever forgotten, I know that every artifice which can deceive, every temptation which can operate on hope or fear, ambition or avarice, pride or vanity, the love of society, pleasure, or amusement, will be employed to divert and warp them from the true line of their duty, and the impartial honor and interest of their country!"

This reasoning will apply to consuls with equal force. The lessons of the moralist and the preachings of the divine, inculcating abstinence and self-denial, cannot change our nature, nor strength of mind overcome our physical wants. The stomach has strong claims upon the attention of the man.

Besides the *inconveniences* above stated, there is another consideration of equal importance to deter from conferring on merchants the appointment of consuls; this is their liability, like all other merchants, to bankruptcy. It has already been shown, that instances of merchant consuls becoming bankrupts are not rare, and it is only necessary here to examine some of the consequences of a state of bankruptcy.

The 614th article of the commercial code of France stands thus: "No merchant who has failed shall appear on the exchange, unless he has obtained his restoration."* And the 605th article, explaining how that restoration is to be obtained, says: "The demandant shall be required to join to his petition the acquittances and other documents, in proof of his having fully satisfied all his creditors, in principal, interests, and costs."†

Let us not conclude that, because a man bears the commission of the president of the United States, as consul for any part of France, he will be exempted from the effect of this law. If we should for a moment indulge that belief, Valin will soon dissipate the error: "But in France, the consuls themselves, if they are engaged in trade, by reason of which they contract engagements, are subject to the jurisdiction of the tribunals of the kingdom, and may be prosecuted before the competent authority, without being able to plead the privilege of the consulate. Hence it follows that, being condemned to pay on pain of arrestation, they may be imprisoned in default of payment. The interest of commerce required that it should be so, and this is a reservation which the king never fails to make in the letters of *exequatur* which he grants to foreign consuls."‡

Now let us suppose that an American consul merchant in France, from

* Rodmond's translation.

† Ibid.

‡ Valin, *Commentaire sur l'ordonnance de la Marine*, Liv. I. Tit. IX. des consuls, &c., Art. XII., vol. i., p. 254.

no matter what cause, finds himself in a state of insolvency, and that, before he shall have obtained his *restoration*, a ship arrives consigned to him; will not the interests of the concerned be likely to suffer from his inability to appear on the usual place of transacting mercantile business—the only common, proper, and *legal* resort of merchants? And is there nothing humiliating to the feelings of a citizen of the United States, to see the representative of his government afraid to appear on the public exchange, where he cannot go without subjecting himself to be kicked off by the first man who feels disposed to avail himself of the privileges of the law?

Let us suppose still farther, that a judgment is obtained against him, and he committed to prison, a figure which, after reading the above extracts, requires no great stretch of imagination; can it be supposed that the consul merchant can afford any protection to either the commerce or citizens of his country, while he is himself confined by bolts and bars? And is it not inconsistent with the dignity of our government to permit its agents to be exposed to be placed in similar situations? Add to this, that merchants who build their hopes of consignments on their official character, are almost always disappointed; they uniformly find that, whatever might have been their hopes or their expectations, the only advantage they derive from their office is more or less respect from the local authorities. All the merchants who are in the practice of shipping goods to foreign ports, have their correspondents in those ports, and if any vessels arrive without a consignee, they are consigned by the captain and supercargo to the house which will make the largest advances; and as very few American consuls are able to hold a competition with many houses in their port, it is exceedingly rare that they obtain a consignment. As a proof of what I advance, I will cite a few names of American consuls in different parts of Europe.

Sylvanus Bourne, after having held the office of consul of the United States ever since the year 1792, died in a state of indigence, in April, 1817. One would think that twenty-five years public service ought to entitle a man to a piece of bread in the decline of life, and to a decent burial, when dead. General Lyman, the sailor's friend, died insolvent in the consulship of London, and his daughters, like those of our late worthy consul at l'Orient, (Mr. Vail,) repaired to the United States, where, to their honor be it said, they opened a boarding-school, and applied the exercise of those accomplishments, which parental fondness had given them for their amusement, to the support of their widowed mother.

In short, among all the consuls named by the United States government, I do not recollect more than three who have not grown poorer during the exercise of their consulship; these are Mr. Ridgway, at Antwerp, Mr. Jarvis, at Lisbon, and Mr. Harris, at St. Petersburg. These gentlemen returned to the United States with large fortunes; they were the first American merchants established in their respective ports; which ports, owing to political circumstances, had a great flow of American trade, and they became rich by their commerce, not by the emoluments of their offices.

No man in his senses, who is acquainted with the real emoluments and advantages of an American consulate, would leave the United States to fill the office, in no matter what port, unless he was already interested, or was sure of being admitted to an interest in some house established in that port.

ART. VI.—INFLUENCE OF COMMERCE ON EDUCATION.

THE following remarks are from an address delivered before Lyceums, or Institutes for Education, at Portsmouth, Exeter, Baltimore, Annapolis, and Washington, by the Hon. Levi Woodbury. The address ably discusses the remedies for certain defects in American education; and in the passages quoted, Mr. Woodbury maintains that a wider extension of free commerce is calculated to promote increased information among all classes:—

Commerce teaches often, by example, even more effectually than books do by precept. Whether foreign or domestic, it is, whenever easy, frequent and active, calculated to pour a flood of light into the human mind, on almost every subject; and to strike it with the more force, as it is light from practice—light from actual experiment—light from living and embodied excellence. No matter whether the defects in our education relate to politics, religion, literature, the sciences, or the arts—in all of them, precept, compared with example, is uncertainty and doubt, compared with reality. Example is theory verified, and therefore when seen by travel or commerce, as new example often is, it becomes more convincing than the strongest argument. Hence the proverbial advantages arising from good companions and foreign travel.

These considerations, on a broader scale, apply to nations, as well as individuals; and each nation, by free commerce within itself, makes the merits of every part better known to the rest, and enables every part to profit by the excellencies of the whole. Following out the same analogies, we can see that, through a liberal commercial intercourse—not only each nation, but every continent, and the globe itself, can derive from all portions some useful hints—some useful customs—some useful arts or useful laws. Frequently what otherwise would to foreigners be born “to waste its fragrance on the desert air,” thus becomes known and beneficial to all. Again, commerce, free and unshackled, supplies wants, comforts, and luxuries, whether to the savage or civilized, and whether near at hand or at the antipodes; and, in this way, by rendering the surplus productions of all countries more valuable in exchange, it helps to excite, encourage and reward the very highest exertions of both body and mind. It thus aids to educate all in most important particulars. It rouses industry in the indolent; animates the torpid to enterprise; expands the views of the recluse; civilizes the roughest, and inspires rivalry in the most sluggish. It assists to propagate new opinions and a new faith, under both the equator and the poles; fertilizes every region not covered with eternal snows; and pushing human improvement in all its varied forms, penetrates remotest seas, and crosses the Andes, the Alps, and the Himalayan, almost as daringly as the Alleghanies. The moderns have hardly done justice to former ages in relation to their immense inland trade, enlightening and civilizing wherever it spread—whether up the Nile from Egypt, or into the remotest Ind from Tyre, and thence from Carthage to distant Britain, and in time over-reaching the Atlantides, discovering, under the more adventurous Genoese, a new continent, and gradually pervading the whole western hemisphere.

The moderns have, to be sure, since entered the farthest isles of the Pacific, and are exploring the ice of both poles; but it is probable they

at last must sigh that there are no more worlds to find and civilize which are worth the search.

One illustration of the enterprise and educating character of commerce, when free, has recently come under my own eye, that may not be without interest to you, in connection with this topic.

During the last autumn, in a small town in the interior of Massachusetts, I found American lead, which had been dug partly by Yankee industry and adventure in the remote wilderness of Wisconsin or Missouri. The same industry and adventure had not only helped to dig, but had transported it through the active channels of commerce, a circuit of more than two thousand miles from the mighty west to the rocky east; and that on routes unknown but a few years ago to anything but the fearless hunter, or the birchen canoe. Fed partly by meat from the same distant source, and corn from the south, and flour from the middle states (fruits of the same commercial enterprise) they were zealously occupied in making this lead into water pipes for operations still more distant, and not a little extraordinary.

What, think you, was to be one of their principal markets? Some of this lead was manufacturing by special order, to be freighted again, under the same Yankee perseverance, not only two thousand miles, but nearly half the circumference of the globe. It was to double the stormy Cape Horn—twice cross the equator, and find its pathless way over new seas into the remote Sandwich islands. And for what use?

To advance again, as a labor-saving machine, the commercial interests of the same spirit, which had untiringly explored the forests, whence the raw material was obtained. It was in the form of pipes, to conduct water more cheaply and conveniently on board our whale-ships, which, with others, resort so frequently to those islands for their necessary supplies.

The mode of paying for it, evinces, with perhaps greater strength, the instructive influence of commerce. It was to be paid for by taking in exchange, partly sugar, cotton, and oil, the products of new native labor and skill among a people not long before (scarce two-thirds of a century) barbarous in the extreme, and murdering the immortal navigator who first discovered and blessed them with some elements of civilization. But now, under the teaching and stimulants of commerce—transporting thither, as everywhere else, over the whole habitable globe—the new sense of duty, inspired by the religion of the cross, they are advanced somewhat in letters, agriculture and the arts, as well as engaging considerably in commerce itself.

Another influence of free commerce on the education of a people, has been, to confer increased value on all other kinds of labor, and thus develop more mental activity and vigor, as well as carefulness, toil, and perseverance in their pursuit. Thus one nation may be more agricultural, or more manufacturing, but it is commerce either from abroad or at home, which alone can secure a high degree of prosperity to either of those great branches of industry. For by that they are principally stimulated and increased, so as to furnish the chief materials for trade, as that alone gives to those materials, when beyond what the meagre necessities of life demand, their principal value. It thus encourages their extensive production; thus animates the mind to new discoveries and useful inventions for their progress, and helps to improve all the arts and skill by

which they attain any high degree of excellence. Destroy commerce, and most of what now polishes, adorns, or enriches, as well as enlightens the world, would degenerate into mere exertion for daily existence. Without its talismanic power, the plough would almost sleep in the furrow ; the shuttle in the loom. The labor-saving machine would be inanimate, and as useless as the mighty pillar of stone in its native quarry, before moulded under the powers of art into the splendid edifice—the colossal bridge—the lofty aqueduct—or the heroic column. There might, to be sure, without commerce, be some separate pieces of the vast chain of civilization, but no connecting link, to impart strength and usefulness to the whole. Man would, of course, still exist, but he would rather vegetate than live. He would resemble the oyster more than that glorious being, akin to angels, and described by Shakspeare as “so noble in reason” and so “infinite in faculties.” The mind, in such a torpid, uneducated, unexcited, unrepai- red condition, as exists without commerce, is like a house without inhabit- ants, or a stream studded with busy manufactories, become abandoned, and thus, ere long, converted into desolate ruins and stagnant pools. The intellect deteriorates, as the thronged city, when deserted and unvisited by the hum of commerce. Its streets, soon become covered with grass, and even forests ; its market places, choked up with rubbish ; its ware- houses, crumbled under cobwebs and moss, into mouldering dust ; and, in time, through mere abandonment, scarcely one stone left on another of its gorgeous mansions, any more than if some Attila had passed over them the ploughshare of Vandal conquest.

How many men, in more advanced life, become, in this way, by mere inaction, the ruined Thebes and Balbecs of what they once were ? their minds, by neglect alone, a wilderness that has uprooted everything beau- tiful or great. They seem full of mutilated statuary, fallen temples, over- turned walls, like the mysterious sites of Copan or Uxmal in the central portions of our own continent.

Usefully there may perhaps be some cloistered seclusion for religious meditation, or solitude for literary researches and philosophical experi- ment, when those are thus pursued, not in torpor, but animated by mo- tives the most ardent, and encouraged by eager intentions of maturing what will prove good ; and the results, ere long, to be ushered to an ap- plauding world, the more perfect, as less interrupted by other avocations. But, as a general rule, shut up a hermit in his cell, or a victim of state in some Bastile ; and allow to neither, books, companions, or employment ; and the process of education, thus suspended, and both of them virtually without intellectual commerce, they would not merely halt in improve- ment, but degenerate ; and, ere long, lose even the power of speech it- self, or talk an unintelligible tongue. Indeed, without regard to peculiar exceptions, inactive seclusion in man, or a non-intercourse with his race, leads to death. It is its symbol and companion as well as cause. Fortu- nately it is an inexorable law of our nature, and one of its great teachers, that to fulfil his high destiny, man must be social, and at the same time active. “By ceaseless action all that is, exists.” The commercial spirit does most towards this, because it is the most restless, vivifying, adven- turous, and busy of any which agitates society. Commercial intercourse, also obliterates prejudices, as well as furnishes new suggestions and ex- citements, new longings and desires. Collision stimulates. Experience hardens. They all prevent mould and moth, as well as rust. Besides

this, commerce is both ever growing, and ever improving. We often see that the exercise of one faculty, one sense, or one limb increases its activity and power. So the public mind, as a whole, in any country, when more awakened and exercised by a series of new objects or examples in commerce, augments in freshness and ardor no less than vigor and keenness, till the wider diffusion and higher perfection of knowledge among all, are produced; and, in turn, produce a people distinguished in every quarter of the globe, and push forward a few to such exalted acquirements as to become statesmen, lawgivers, and philosophers, little below demigods in history and power. Men are thus educated to be liberal, likewise, as well as elevated. Novel and bold opinions in politics or religion soon cease to be contraband articles in the enlarged intercourse between nations. Restrictions on efforts by others, or on fair competition of any kind, are gradually prostrated.

Prohibitory laws as to trade—colonial vassalage in business—severe penalties against free enterprise and free industry—onerous taxes or burthens on either exports or imports—harshness to foreigners—Chinese exclusion—Japanese intolerance—barbarous prejudices against strangers—all are in time softened down, and must be dispelled by the magic wand of commerce. If luxury or voluptuous manners are sometimes promoted by it, which is not improbable, it is only the occasional evil, often inseparable from the permanent good; and injures it little more than the spots on the face of the sun obscure its light to us, or lessen its refulgent glories to the whole solar system.

ART. VII.—MERCANTILE BIOGRAPHY.

HOWQUA, THE SENIOR HONG MERCHANT.*

Howqua, the senior Hong merchant, expired at Canton on the 4th September, 1843. His biography would include all the important events connected with the foreign trade during the last thirty years; hence we shall confine ourselves to a few remarks on the character and conduct of the deceased.

Howqua was descended from a respectable Fo-kien family, long resident in the principal black tea district, and his grandfather was one of the Amoy Hong, who, with the progenitors of the Canton Hong merchants, Poon-ke-qua, Chunc-qua, and Min-qua, were ordered by the emperor to remove to Canton, when all intercourse was forbidden with the English and Dutch at the port of Amoy.

Howqua had attained his seventy-fifth year when he died, and for a long time has been in a feeble state of health, with extremely attenuated frame, but with an unimpaired intellectual vigor up to his last illness. His fortune is estimated variously, but it is believed he has large investments in the British and foreign funds; and we know that a twelvemonth since, one of the most intimate of his foreign friends expressed his belief that Howqua was then worth at least \$25,000,000: except a small portion, the whole is the result of his own industry and enterprise.

* From the "Friend of China and Hong Kong Gazette," of September 14th, 1843.

The attack of the British on Canton during the last war, inflicted considerable injury on Howqua: the value of the pack houses and their contents, which were then destroyed, amounted alone to \$1,000,000, and Howqua used to affirm that the war had inflicted on him a loss of \$2,000,000. His proportion of the Canton ransom was \$800,000. It was after this event that he prayed the emperor to be permitted to retire from his position as a Hong merchant, respectfully tendering at the same time what he called all his wealth, viz., 2,500,000 taels, which, he said, all accrued to him from the emperor's bounty, and supplicated the imperial will to accord him such portion thereof as its heavenly benevolence deemed fit to maintain him during the wretched remnant of his life. This petition was refused.

It must, however, be observed, that the Chinese government had the greatest confidence in Howqua, who, to the last, retained an inveterate aversion to new customs and modern fashions, whilst he clung with the most conservative tenacity to the old corrupt system, by which his vast wealth was mainly accumulated.

Howqua was the guardian and comptroller of the Kong-soo fund, and the organ of communication between the government and the foreign merchants. He possessed vast power and influence among his countrymen, was a large landed proprietor, and had founded and endowed a temple to Buddha in the suburbs of Canton. It was supposed that the refusal of Howqua's prayer to retire into private life was owing to the late war, and the claims which the government might have on his services at such a crisis. *We believe the truth was, that besides the undeniable influence Howqua possessed, yet his notorious wealth and success was the cause of his detention.* The local mandarins, and perhaps, also, some at Pekin, were well aware that Howqua was made of *squeezeable materials*, and as long as he occupied his onerous post, they could often test his qualities in that respect.

As a merchant, we believe the deceased could be favorably contrasted with the most eminent that Europe has produced. It seems almost incredible, but not less true, that, to the last, he directed his vast and complicated trade, which almost encircled the globe, alone. His knowledge, and even familiarity with mercantile details connected with the trade of foreign ports, was truly astonishing; sound judgment, true prudence, wary circumspection, and a wise economy, were distinguishing traits of his mercantile character.

By Englishmen, Howqua was not liked. His predilections were American, and justly so, we think, seeing that he was indebted in an early stage of his career to a citizen of that country, for information he sought in vain from the English; and, moreover, the monopoly of the East India Company rendered an American association preferable in a pecuniary sense to any English connection.

It is alleged by his friends, that Howqua would never consent to evade the duties, or smuggle any kind of goods. We doubt this, as he had branch houses at Soochow, Ningpo, Shanghai, and other opulent cities in China. It is hardly credible that he could successfully carry on his business there, with competitors who did smuggle whenever they had the opportunity, and which the notorious venality of the authorities rendered quite the rule, rather than the exception.

In conclusion, we are glad to record a gratifying fact, which will em-

balm the memory of old Howqua. Since the difficulties about the opium trade, he has wholly abstained from touching the "unclean thing." Directly or indirectly, he has uniformly refused again engaging in this traffic, although he might have added millions upon millions to his treasure. This is no mean testimony to his patriotism, and his respect for the laws and regulations of his country. As a type of the old regime—as a Chinese conservative of the "purest ray serene"—the death of Howqua will, perhaps, be deemed by his sovereign and country as a positive national calamity.

ART. VIII.—CITIES AND TOWNS IN THE UNITED STATES.

INCREASE OF THE THIRTY-SIX PRINCIPAL CITIES AND TOWNS.

THE first two of the following tables will show the population of all the cities and towns in the United States in 1830 and 1840, containing over 10,000 inhabitants each, in 1840, according to the census; and also the increase of their population from 1830 to 1840, in the order of their greatest proportional increase. In the third table, besides the population of the states in which there are cities of this size, and their increase from 1830 to 1840, is contained the aggregate of the population of these cities respectively, in each state, with the increase in the order of the greatest increase, and the proportion per cent of their population, in 1830 and 1840, to that of the states respectively. It will be perceived that, with the exception of Maine and South Carolina, there has been an increase of this proportion in all these states; and that the average increase has been about 2 per cent. It will also be perceived that the increase of the population in the thirteen remaining states and territories has been, during the ten years, almost double what it has been in those states which contain cities or towns of 10,000 inhabitants. It will also be perceived that the increase of these thirty-six cities and towns has been over 1 per cent greater than that of the population of the whole country, during the ten years from 1830 to 1840. In other words, the population of these cities was 7.26 per cent of that of the whole country in 1830, and 8.34 per cent in 1840.

The fourth table is added to show the population and its increase, from 1830 to 1840, in the thirteen states and territories not specified in the preceding tables, in the order of their great increase, except the territories of Iowa and Wisconsin.

The influences of manufactures and commerce have been the chief causes, not merely to build up and sustain these cities, but also to have produced this large increase in these cities, and are particularly manifest in some of them. In the first table, Lowell stands at the head, dependent upon manufactures. The next is Brooklyn, which is a suburb of New York city, and with it derives its support and prosperity from commerce. Rochester is indebted to both sources of prosperity; while New Orleans, (dependent, for the most part, upon commerce alone,) Cincinnati, Louisville, and Pittsburgh, are advanced largely by both commerce and manufactures. Charleston alone decreased, during the ten years from 1830 to 1840. It is obvious that the cities and towns in the second table are indebted for their growth mainly to the influences of commerce and manu-

factures. The increase of Mobile, at the head of this list, was 296 per cent; while that of Salem, whose business has been, to a considerable extent, merged in that of Boston, was only 8 per cent during this period.

Those who are conversant with the transactions of commerce, and the manufactures of our country, especially with the commerce of the different states, will readily perceive what have been the principal causes of the increase of these cities and towns during these ten years, and will be able to form some opinion respecting the amount of their business and growth hereafter.

TABLE I.

Cities.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census in 1840.
Lowell, Mass.,.....	6,474	14,322	221.22	20,796
Brooklyn, N. Y.,.....	15,394	20,839	135.37	36,233
Rochester, N. Y.,.....	9,207	10,984	119.30	20,191
New Orleans, La.,.....	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193
Cincinnati, O.,.....	24,831	21,507	86.61	46,338
Louisville, Ky.,.....	12,564	8,646	68.81	21,210
Pittsburgh, Pa.,.....	12,568	8,547	67.00	21,115
New York, N. Y.,.....	202,589	110,121	54.25	312,710
Boston, Mass.,.....	61,392	31,991	52.10	93,383
Albany, N. Y.,.....	24,209	9,512	39.29	33,721
Providence, R. I.,.....	16,833	6,338	37.65	23,171
Philadelphia, Pa.,.....	188,797	69,240	36.67	258,037
Baltimore, Md.,.....	80,620	21,693	26.90	102,313
Richmond, Va.,.....	16,060	4,093	25.48	20,153
Washington, D. C.,.....	18,826	4,538	24.10	23,364
Total, in 15 cities,.....	740,190	394,738	53.32	1,134,928
Charleston, S. C.,.....	30,289	Loss, 1,028	3.39	29,261
Total, 16 cities,	770,479	393,710	51.09	1,164,189

TABLE II.

Cities and Towns.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Mobile, Ala.,.....	3,194	9,478	296.74	12,672
Allegheny, Pa.,.....	2,801	7,288	260.19	10,089
St. Louis, Mo.,.....	5,852	10,617	181.42	16,469
Buffalo, N. Y.,.....	8,668	9,545	110.11	18,213
Watervliet, N. Y.,.....	4,962	5,179	104.37	10,141
Troy, N. Y.,.....	11,556	7,778	67.30	19,334
Springfield, Mass.,.....	6,784	4,201	61.92	10,985
New Bedford, Mass.,.....	7,592	4,495	59.20	12,087
Salina, N. Y.,.....	6,929	4,084	58.94	11,013
Newark, N. J.,.....	10,953	6,337	57.85	17,290
Utica, N. Y.,.....	8,323	4,459	53.57	12,782
Savannah, Ga.,.....	7,303	3,911	53.55	12,214
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.,.....	7,222	2,784	38.54	10,006
Petersburgh, Va.,.....	8,322	2,814	33.81	11,136
Charlestown, Mass.,.....	8,783	2,701	30.75	11,484
New Haven, Ct.,.....	10,180	2,780	27.30	12,960
Fishkill, N. Y.,.....	8,292	2,145	25.86	10,437
Portland, Me.,.....	12,598	2,620	20.79	15,218
Norfolk, Va.,.....	9,814	1,106	11.26	10,920
Salem, Mass.,.....	13,895	1,187	8.54	15,082
Total, 20 cities and towns,.....	164,023	95,509	58.22	259,532
“ 16 cities,.....	770,479	393,710	51.09	1,164,189
Total, 36 cities and towns,.....	934,502	489,219	52.35	1,423,721
“ U. S., exc'pt 36 cit. & towns,	11,931,518	3,708,114	31.07	15,639,632
Total population of the U. States,	12,866,020	4,197,333	32.62	17,063,353

TABLE III.

STATES.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	per cent.	Census of 1840.	No. of cities.	Census of towns in 1840.	Increase in 10 yrs.	per cent.	Census of cities and towns in 1840.	Increase per cent.	Census of cities and towns to that of the states, per cent.
Alabama,.....	309,537	281,929	90.85	590,756	1	3,194	9,478	296.74	12,672	1.03	2.14
Missouri,.....	140,455	243,247	173.18	383,702	1	5,552	10,617	181.42	16,469	4.16	4.29
Louisiana,.....	215,739	136,672	63.35	352,411	1	49,826	52,367	105.09	102,193	23.09	28.29
Ohio,.....	937,903	581,564	62.00	1,519,467	1	24,831	21,507	86.61	46,338	2.64	3.04
Kentucky,.....	687,917	91,911	13.36	779,828	1	12,564	8,646	68.81	21,210	1.82	2.71
New York,.....	1,918,608	510,313	26.59	2,428,921	11	307,351	187,430	60.98	494,781	16.01	20.37
New Jersey,.....	320,823	52,483	16.35	373,306	1	10,853	6,337	57.85	17,290	3.41	4.63
Massachusetts,.....	610,408	127,291	20.85	737,699	6	104,920	58,897	56.13	163,817	17.18	22.20
Georgia,.....	516,823	174,569	33.77	691,392	1	7,303	3,911	53.55	11,214	1.41	1.62
Pennsylvania,.....	1,348,233	375,800	27.87	1,724,033	3	204,166	85,075	41.66	289,241	15.14	16.77
Rhode Island,.....	97,199	11,631	11.96	108,830	1	16,833	6,338	37.65	23,171	17.31	21.29
Connecticut,.....	297,675	12,303	4.13	309,978	1	10,180	2,780	27.30	12,960	3.41	4.18
Maryland,.....	447,040	22,979	5.14	470,019	1	80,620	21,693	26.90	102,313	18.03	21.76
District of Columbia,.....	39,834	3,878	9.73	43,712	1	18,826	4,538	24.10	23,364	47.26	53.44
Virginia,.....	1,211,405	28,392	2.34	1,239,797	3	34,196	8,013	23.43	42,209	2.82	3.40
Maine,.....	399,455	102,338	25.61	501,793	1	12,598	2,620	20.79	15,218	3.15	Loss 3.03
15 states, and District of Columbia, South Carolina,.....	9,499,044 581,185	2,756,600 13,213	29.01 2.27	12,255,644 594,398	35 1	904,213 30,989	490,247 Loss 1,028	54.21 3.39	1,394,460 29,261	9.51 5.21	11.37 4.92
16 states, and District of Columbia, 13 states and territories,.....	10,080,229 2,780,473	2,769,813 1,432,838	27.47 51.53	12,850,042 4,213,311	36 ...	934,502	489,219	52.35	1,423,721	9.27	11.79
30 states and territories,.....	12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353
Naval service,.....	5,318	782	14.70	6,100
Total, of the United States,...	12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453	...	934,502	489,219	1,423,721	7.96	8.34

TABLE IV.

States and Territories.	Census of 1830.	Increase in 10 yrs.	Increase per cent.	Census of 1840.
Michigan,.....	31,639	180,628	570.90	212,267
Arkansas,.....	30,388	67,186	221.09	97,574
Illinois,.....	157,445	318,738	202.44	476,183
Mississippi,.....	136,621	239,030	174.95	375,651
Indiana,.....	343,031	342,835	99.94	685,866
Florida Territory,.....	34,730	19,747	56.85	54,477
Tennessee,.....	681,904	147,306	21.60	829,210
New Hampshire,.....	269,328	15,246	5.66	284,574
Vermont,.....	280,652	11,296	4.02	291,948
North Carolina,.....	737,987	15,432	2.09	753,419
Delaware,.....	76,748	1,337	1.74	78,085
Iowa,.....	43,112	43,112
Wisconsin,.....	30,945	30,945
13 states and territories,.....	2,780,473	1,432,838	51.53	4,213,311
16 states and Dist. of Columbia,...	10,080,229	2,769,813	27.47	12,850,042
30 states and territories,.....	12,860,702	4,202,651	32.67	17,063,353
Naval service,.....	5,318	782	14.70	6,100
Population of the United States, ..	12,866,020	4,203,433	32.62	17,069,453

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

SINCE our last number, the business of the spring has considerably progressed. The great thoroughfares through which the trade of the country moves, conveying to market the produce of the interior, and reconveying to the interior, for consumption, its equivalent, in domestic goods and imported merchandise, have gradually been opening, under the influence of the fine spring weather; and a corresponding effect upon the markets of the Atlantic cities has been produced. The large imports of the first quarter of the present year have furnished good supplies, and fair assortments, to meet the demand to replenish stocks; which, in the interior, must have become pretty well reduced, by reason of the long stagnation which has prevailed in business. The imports of the United States for the year 1843, were exceedingly small, as compared with the previous years, as seen in the following table, from House Document No. 306, showing the value of merchandise imported into the United States in the first three quarters of 1843, as compared with the average of two preceding terms, of four years each:—

Average value of leading Articles of Merchandise imported, for the years 1837, 1838, and 1839. Also, for the years 1840, 1841, and 1842; and from October 1, 1842, to June 30, 1843, (being three-quarters of the year 1843,) paying ad valorem and specific duties.

Names of Articles.	Av. importations of years 1837, 1838, and 1839.	Av. importations of years 1840, 1841, and 1842.	Actual importations for 3 quarters of 1843.
Wool, coarse, costing 7 c. pr. lb., and under,	\$558,458	\$759,646	\$193,984
All other, unmanufactured,.....	801,087	1,004,312	54,695
Manufactures of, except carpeting,.....	5,551,389	5,676,452	1,472,381
Carpets,.....	517,020	308,766	181,810
Blankets, not over 75 cents each,.....	558,830	304,363	29,996
All others,.....	528,652	305,152	171,458
Worsted, all not specified,.....	4,769,873	2,033,181	456,051
Flannels, except cotton,.....	118,281	62,372	17,779
“ “ bockings and baizes,.....	69,241	68,932	19,670
Cotton, manufactures of,.....	10,345,615	8,710,631	531,988
“ “ Not over 30 c., valued at 30 c.,...	1,739,318
Silk, manufactures of,.....	16,428,010	12,705,822	2,719,175
Hemp, unmanufactured,.....	534,688	505,221	228,882
Flax, linens,.....	5,200,235	4,569,017	1,202,772

Average value of leading Articles of Merchandise imported, etc.—Continued.

Names of Articles.	Av. importations of years 1837, 1838, and 1839.	Av. importations of years 1840, 1841, and 1842.	Actual importations for 3 quarters of 1843.
Iron, in bars,.....	\$1,745,878	\$1,448,620	\$327,550
“ rolled,.....	2,526,556	1,977,793	511,281
“ pig,.....	342,442	211,044	48,251
“ sheet,.....	355,866	302,854	132,322
“ hoop,.....			
“ saddlery,.....	233,368	113,515	27,097
“ wood-screws of,.....	139,797	127,994	7,551
Steel, cast, shear, or German, in bars,.....	687,985	578,411	185,907
Plated and gilt wire, of all kinds,.....	312,746	430,942	30,687
Hardware,.....	4,597,871	3,094,131	751,306
Tin, in pigs,.....	378,699	259,566	82,164
“ in plates or sheets,.....	984,155	985,552	577,731
Coal,.....	362,143	379,075	116,312
Wares, China,.....	240,943	171,156	53,985
“ earthen and stone,.....	1,656,455	1,530,391	534,051
Raw hides, on all skins pickled and in casks, not specified,.....	2,833,779	3,427,092	2,328,071
Manufactures of leather,.....	777,158	700,890	24,236
Furs, undressed,.....	570,683	578,051	77,116
Watches, or parts of do.,.....	841,594	411,780	261,038
Rags,.....	497,665	599,712	79,853
Sugar, brown, raw,.....	7,178,578	5,927,690	2,426,011
“ brown, clayed,.....	1,507,598	988,896	64,932
“ clayed and clarified,.....			
Molasses,.....	389,406	2,493,961	1,134,820
Cocoa,.....	163,341	171,828	111,093
Nutmegs,.....	142,600	87,556	14,688
Chinese cassia,.....	58,146	46,206	59,104
Pimento,.....	157,406	82,466	47,441
Black pepper,.....	217,012	137,899	95,988
Indigo,.....	801,087	1,010,364	476,201
Raisins, muscatel, or bloom,.....	725,756	733,601	276,164
“ all other kinds,.....	204,661	117,727	38,694
Salt,.....	922,709	892,831	710,489
Saltpetre, partially refined,.....	355,035	324,868
Bleaching powder,.....	59,205
Spirits, from grain,.....	435,080	338,119	121,547
“ from other materials,.....	1,288,301	1,069,436	32,095
Wine, Madeira,.....	585,201	253,465	9,075
“ Sherry,.....	215,013	108,952	6,491
Cigars, of all kinds,.....	1,028,502	994,793	463,431

This presents a great and marked reduction in the quantities of the leading articles of foreign goods consumed within the United States. The aggregate values of dutiable imports, with the amount of duties collected, were as follows:—

	Value of imports.	Duties collected.	Rate of duty, per cent.
Specific duties,.....	\$12,494,340	\$6,390,449	51.15
Ad valorem duties,.....	16,684,875	4,153,686	24.89
Total,.....	\$29,179,215	\$10,544,135	36.13

This was the progress of business through the first three quarters of 1843, up to 30th June, at which time the fiscal year is now to close according to the law of the last session of Congress. With the close of the third quarter of that year, it will be remembered, an improved business sprang up, resulting from a rise in prices of western produce, and the general abundance of money here, which had reached a rate lower than had been known for many years. In our numbers for September and October, we stated the progress of that business and the causes which stimulate it. The general results of that business are seen in the imports and exports as expressed in the annual report of the secretary, as follows, compared with former years:—

IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Years.	Free of duty.	Dutiable.	Total.
1843—3 quarters,.....	\$35,574,584	\$29,179,215	\$64,753,799
1843—4 "	4,896,457	19,610,719	24,507,096
Total, 1843,.....	\$40,470,961	\$48,789,934	\$89,260,895
" 1842,.....	30,627,486	69,534,601	100,162,085
" 1841,.....	66,019,731	61,926,466	127,946,177
" 1840,.....	57,196,204	49,945,315	107,141,519

In the year 1841, an evident improvement had taken place in business generally, consequent upon the rise in the prices of produce which had taken place in that year. In 1842, the tariff of 1841 raising most of the duties theretofore less than 20 per cent to that rate, and imposing a like duty upon goods before free, came into operation. This produced a great falling off in free goods, but the dutiable goods did not increase in the same proportion. During 1843, the present tariff was in operation, and the dutiable goods declined \$21,000,000. The import of free goods also declined, because the amount of specie imported in 1843, was \$23,285,552, which, deducted from the free imports, leaves \$17,185,409 as the total of free goods imported, against \$26,540,470 in 1842. The total of foreign goods imported in the first three quarters of 1843, amounted to not more than two-thirds of the whole import for the year; that is, the actual amount of goods imported in the fourth quarter of 1843, equalled half the whole amount of the goods imported in the first three quarters. Thus the amount of specie imported in the first three quarters was \$22,077,301, which, deducted from the free goods, leaves \$13,497,283 as the value of goods, making, with the dutiable goods imported, \$42,676,490. The amount of specie imported in the fourth quarter was \$1,208,251, which, deducted from the free goods, leaves \$3,688,206. This amount, added to the dutiable goods, leaves \$23,298,925 as the import of merchandise for the fourth quarter. This increased business was the result of that movement of specie which, commencing from north to south in the fall of 1842, carried near \$12,000,000 to New Orleans. This sum being disseminated in the channels of business, assisted by concurring causes, stimulated and improved the demand for goods, and encouraged imports.

The exports from the United States for a corresponding period, were as follows:—

EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Exports three quarters ending Jan. 30.	Value of Domestic goods.	Value of Foreign goods.	Total.	Tons.
In American vessels,....	\$60,107,819	\$4,945,817	\$65,053,636	1,286,083
In foreign "	17,685,964	1,606,880	19,292,844	523,949
Total, 3 quarters,....	\$77,793,783	\$6,552,697	\$84,346,480	1,810,032
Exp'ts qr. end'g Sept. 30,	12,700,702	3,016,044	15,716,782
Total, for 1843,.....	\$90,494,485	\$9,568,741	\$100,062,266
" 1842,.....	92,969,996	10,720,538	104,691,534	2,371,148
" 1841,.....	106,382,722	15,469,081	121,851,803	2,371,005
" 1840,.....	113,895,634	18,189,312	132,085,946	2,353,493

This presents a regular decline in business, which, in some degree, may be accounted for in the fall of prices. Of the domestic goods exported in the three quarters, the different heads were as follows:—

	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843. Three qrs.
Fisheries,.....	\$3,198,370	\$2,846,851	\$2,823,010	\$2,112,548
Forest,.....	5,323,085	6,264,852	5,118,262	3,351,909
Animals,.....	3,006,034	4,360,180	4,568,772	3,963,694
Vegetable food,.....	15,587,657	12,377,282	11,900,652	6,955,908
Tobacco,.....	9,883,957	12,576,703	9,540,755	4,650,979
Cotton,.....	63,870,307	54,330,341	47,593,464	49,119,806
Manufactures,.....	7,469,966	9,326,163	9,072,472	3,223,550
Other articles,.....	5,575,738	4,300,150	3,952,589	4,405,287
Total,.....	\$113,895,634	\$106,382,722	\$92,969,996	\$77,793,783

The cotton exports for the three quarters exhibit an excess over last year, as, at the close of June, the bulk of the crop had nearly all gone forward. The crop last year was very large, and a great proportion of it sold at prices exceedingly low. In Feb.

ruary and March, the rates touched their lowest points, and thereafter were gradually on the rise. In the fourth quarter, the exports reached near \$13,000,000, mostly of vegetable food.

The impulse given to business, in the fourth quarter of 1843, extended into the first quarter of the current year, and imports, following the advanced price of goods, have again been large. The customs received at the port of New York, in each month of the last quarter, were, as compared with the previous year, as follows:—

Years.	January.	February.	March.	Total.
1843,.....	\$548,056	\$492,216	\$936,590	\$1,976,862
1844,.....	1,876,615	2,169,110	1,691,000	5,736,725
Increase,.....	\$1,328,559	\$1,676,894	\$754,410	\$3,759,863

It is remarkable, that the large increase of business which took place in the fourth quarter of 1843, was unaccompanied by any increased demand for money. On the other hand, as business advanced, money became more plenty; and the rate in the discount market continued to fall. During the past three months, however, prices of most commodities have advanced, an operation which of itself absorbs a larger amount of money; and during the last month it has again been rising in value on temporary loans, and the banks have notified outstanding claims that they would be charged with 6 per cent. The banks are enabled, at this late period of their financial quarter, to obtain a slightly increased price for money, after a quarter of very large imports, and an unusually early spring for trade. When, however, after many of these notes, which have been created during the past few weeks, mature, and are paid simultaneously with a realization of the large stocks of cotton and other produce now held, it is reasonable to suppose that the abundance of money will increase, and its rate again fall in the discount market. The amount of capital employed in banking here, is by far too large, now, for the character of the business done. The amount of business is large, and increasing; but the purchases are, for the most part, for cash, or city acceptances; and there is, therefore, none of that continued demand for money, at long dates, which mostly tends to increase its value, by lengthening the period at which it returns to the source of its loan.

The large imports have not had the effect of creating a demand for foreign bills sufficient to restore the rates current in the early part of the year, although the rates have continued pretty firm for the season. They have been as follows:—

RATES OF EXCHANGES IN NEW YORK.

Foreign.

	Sterling.	Francs.	Amsterdam.	Hamb'g.	Brem.
February 19,.....	9 a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,30 a 5,28 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 40	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	78 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 25,.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,30 a 5,28 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 40	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	78 $\frac{1}{2}$
March 2,.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 9	5,30 a 5,28 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 40	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	78 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 14,.....	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8	5,32 a 5,33	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 39 $\frac{1}{2}$	35	77 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 21,.....	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8	5,32 a 5,33	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 39 $\frac{1}{2}$	35	77 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 27,.....	8 a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,30 a ...	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 39 $\frac{1}{2}$	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	78 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 30,.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$... a 5,28 $\frac{1}{2}$	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a ...	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	78
April 3,.....	8 a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,28 $\frac{1}{2}$ a ...	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a ...	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	78 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 6,.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,28 $\frac{1}{2}$ a ...	39 $\frac{1}{2}$ a ...	35 $\frac{1}{2}$	78 $\frac{1}{2}$
" 14,.....	8 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 8 $\frac{1}{2}$	5,27 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 5,28 $\frac{1}{2}$	40 a ...	35 $\frac{1}{2}$...

The rates have been low if we take into consideration the large amount of cotton, equal to 250,000 bales, worth \$10,000,000, in excess of the stock of last year, now held on this side of the Atlantic.

The speculation in cotton, to which we have alluded in our former numbers, has considerably subsided. The prospect now is, that the crop will turn out much larger than was expected, and will reach near 2,000,000 bales. The receipts are now as follows:—

RECEIPTS OF COTTON FROM SEPTEMBER 1, TO APRIL 1.

	1844. Bales.	1843. Bales.	1842. Bales.	1841. Bales.	1840. Bales.
April,.....	1,606,607	1,959,255	1,367,456	1,282,172	1,546,409
Subsequently,...	420,205	316,755	352,773	631,426
Crop,.....	2,379,460	1,684,211	1,634,945	2,177,835

The average receipts for the four years subsequent to the beginning of April, were over 400,000 bales; which, added to the actual receipts, will make a crop of over 2,000,000 bales. The conviction of this has considerably checked the spirit of specula-

tion; and, under the combination of the spinners in Manchester to check the speculative rise in cotton, the price has fallen back heavily at all points. This is the natural reaction from a season of speculation. It is highly probable, however, if we take into consideration the state of affairs in Europe, the abundance of money, and the rapid extension of articles of consumption, that prices of produce and raw material will again rise towards the close of the season.

During the month, stocks have greatly fluctuated in value; not so much the dividend-paying state stocks, as what are called the "fancy stocks." Speculation has run into railroad shares to a great extent, and prices have advanced enormously. There is an impression in some quarters that these stocks will, in the growth of the country and the natural increase of travel, prove ultimately the most profitable and stable investments.

The finances of the federal government are gradually improving in point of receipts, but the expenditures seem to swell in proportion.

The receipts and expenditures of the United States, for the eight months elapsed of the new fiscal year, ending January 30, 1844, have been, according to the reports of the secretary, as follows:—

UNITED STATES RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES.

<i>Receipts.</i>			
	Quarter ending Sept. 30, 1843.	5 months ending March 1.	Total, 8 m'ths.
Customs,.....	\$6,132,272	\$8,970,416	\$15,102,688
Lands,.....	388,870	948,182	1,337,052
Miscellaneous,.....	26,871	57,337	84,208
Loan of 1843,.....	66,000	4,231	70,231
Treasury notes,.....	1,919,800	1,919,800
Total,.....	\$6,616,013	\$11,899,966	\$18,513,981
<i>Expenditures.</i>			
Civil, miscellaneous, and for'gn,	\$1,016,257	\$2,513,808	\$3,530,065
Military,.....	2,156,557	2,017,928	6,174,485
Naval,.....	2,049,387	2,354,569	4,703,956
Interest of debt,.....	95,555	531,879	647,434
Treasury notes and interest,....	6,902,031	3,403,963	10,305,998
Total,.....	\$13,219,389	\$11,842,147	\$25,361,938

The amount on hand July 1st, 1844, was very large; consisting mostly of the proceeds of the 5 per cent \$7,000,000 loan, authorized for the redemption of the treasury notes, which had been paid in, while the redemption of the notes did not appear upon the books until afterwards. The actual balance, exclusive of loans and notes, was \$3,700,000. The apparent balance was \$10,434,507. Hence, the means stand as follows:—

Balance on hand, July 1st, 1843,.....	\$10,434,507
Receipts, 8 months, to March 1st,.....	18,513,981
Total means,.....	\$28,948,488
“ expenditures,.....	25,361,938
Excess of means,.....	\$3,586,550

The estimates for the four months, added to the actual results, as here reported, make the receipts and expenditures, as compared with the estimates contained in the annual statement, made December 6, 1843, as follows:—

	<i>Receipts.</i>	<i>Expenditures.</i>
December, 1843, statement,.....	\$19,521,013	\$32,482,784
March, 1844, “	24,713,981	36,100,265
Increase,.....	\$5,192,968	\$3,617,481

This gives a large increase in the receipts derivable from the customs, consequent upon the large imports, as above stated. The increase which has taken place in the expenditures is not so easy of explanation. The expenditures, according to the present statement, deducting payments on account of treasury notes, will be \$26,341,554—a sum equal to that of the year 1841, and much in excess of that of 1842.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

IN BANKRUPTCY—STATUTE OF LIMITATIONS.

In the United States District Court, Boston. In Bankruptcy. January, 1844. In the matter of Francis Alden. This was a motion filed to expunge the proof of Leonard Alden, on the ground that it was barred by the statute of limitations. A preliminary objection was taken to the filing of the motion, upon the ground that the application was too late. It appeared, by the affidavits in the cause, that Francis Alden filed his petition to be declared a bankrupt December 30, 1842, and was decreed bankrupt February 21, 1843. The proof of Leonard Alden was filed August 1, 1843. A dividend was ordered upon his estate September 26, of which due notice was given; and the motion to expunge the proof was made January 30, 1844, a dividend having been allowed and paid on the respondent's claim.

It further appeared, that before filing the motion to expunge, the counsel for the creditors, objecting to Francis Alden's discharge, at whose request the present motion was made by the assignee, examined the records to ascertain whether a majority in numbers and value of the creditors, who had proved their claims, joined in the objections; and on that examination it appeared that the amount of Leonard Alden's claim was incorrectly entered on the book, though the proof itself and the dividend sheet correctly stated it. The bankrupt, in his original schedule, had stated Leonard Alden's claim to be upon notes, but the claim moved to be expunged was on account. It was not denied that the debt was originally a just and valid claim, but it was contended that it was barred by the statute of limitations, and that, under the circumstances, the motion was not too late.

On the other hand, it was contended, on behalf of Mr. Alden, that the statute of limitations was a technical defence, and that a party who seeks to set it up should be held to comply strictly with the principles under which it was admissible as a bar; that a decree had been rendered allowing this claim, upon due notice, to all parties, which ought not to be reopened, even if the Court could, consistently with established principles, reverse the decree; and that it was never known that a judgment was reversed in order to give a party an opportunity to set up the statute of limitations.

Judge Sprague held that, under the ninth rule in bankruptcy, the Court might reverse such a decree upon good cause shown, which must be by an application in writing, supported by affidavits setting forth the grounds upon which a revision was sought; that it was a question to the discretion of the Court to be governed by the analogies in cases of Bills of Review in Equity, which might be allowed in cases of newly discovered evidence or error on the face of the record; that it did not appear that the assignee had ever examined this claim, or deemed that it was his duty to examine the claims; that no creditor had ever used any diligence before the dividend was ordered; that the inaccuracy upon the record was not the ground of any omission to move to expunge the claim before the dividend was ordered; that the statute of limitations might be a conscientious defence under some circumstances, as where a party knew that the debt was paid, but had lost the evidence of payment, it was perfectly conscientious to set up the statute. But in this case, it was not contended that the debt had ever been paid. The creditor had sworn to its validity, the debtor might be examined by the assignee under oath; and in a matter to be adjudged according to the discretion of the Court, his Honor would not allow the motion to be received, and sustained the objection taken by Leonard Alden, and dismissed the motion with costs.

INFRINGEMENT OF PATENT.

In the United States Circuit Court, held at Boston, Massachusetts, December, 1843, an action was brought by Eleazer Carver *vs.* the Braintree Manufacturing Company, to recover damages for an infringement of the plaintiff's patent for an improvement in the ribs of saw gins for ginning cotton. It was objected for the defendants—

1. That the plaintiff had not described his patent so precisely as to enable a mechanic, skilful in such a line of business, to make the machine from the description. This the Court held to be a question of fact for the jury, and there was evidence tending to show that mechanics had constructed the machine from the description.

2. That the plaintiff had, in his specification for his renewed patent, (for the infringement of which this action was brought,) omitted certain things which he had claimed, as of his invention, in his first patent. This the Court held was not sufficient to vitiate his patent. Indeed, the Court was inclined to the opinion that it was competent for an inventor, at any time, to omit a part of his original invention, from considerations of expediency.

3. That the plaintiff had not stated all the ways in which his improvement might be enjoyed; but the Court deemed it sufficient that he had pointed out his improvement as an improvement to the space between the ribs, and had suggested what, to him, appeared the most eligible mode of effecting this object. He was not bound to claim or specify all the various modes of producing the desired effect.

A verdict had been taken by consent of the plaintiff at the trial for \$960, subject to the opinion of the Court; and this being for the plaintiff, a new trial was moved for on the ground (among others) of the exclusion of a witness for the defence, who had been a member of the corporation at the time of the infringement of the patent, but had subsequently sold out his interest.

The Court held, that as the incorporators were made liable, by their charter, for all debts contracted during the time of their membership, this witness had a direct interest in the event of the suit, for the term "debts" applied not only to obligations arising out of contracts, but to claims for damages for infringement of patents, failure to perform agreements, and the like. The motion for a new trial was refused.

COLLECTOR'S CLAIM OF PER CENTAGE ON CUSTOM BONDS.

In the U. S. Circuit Court, New York, December, 1843. *Jesse Hoyt vs. Edward Curtis.*

The plaintiff was formerly collector of the port, and claims \$1,799, with interest, from defendant, who is the present collector. The claim is grounded on an asserted right of one-half per cent, commission on bonds which were in the custom-house at the time of plaintiff's leaving, and which were collected, at maturity, by defendant. Mr. Hoffman, district attorney, disputed plaintiff's right to such commissions. Mr. Selden, counsel for Mr. Hoyt, contended that his client was entitled to the amount, but refused to take any more interest than would be sufficient to keep the verdict below \$2,000, as he did not wish the government to have an opportunity of carrying the case to the Supreme Court of the United States. The Court charged that the salary of the collector is now defined by law, that he is entitled to \$4,000 a year, and the plaintiff cannot sustain the presentation, as he has not received this amount. Verdict for defendant.

ACTION OF TRESPASS.

In the Supreme Court, (New York city,) Judge Oakley presiding. *Andrew Lester vs. Samuel F. Parker and others.*

This was an action of trespass. It appeared that the defendant obtained judgment on a note passed him by an auctioneer named Browning, and not being able to recover on the judgment, he filed a creditor's bill in the Court of Chancery, and obtained an order for a receiver to take possession of Browning's property, or at least so much of it as should pay his debt. The receiver accordingly, at the defendant's instance, took posses-

sion of the entire stock of goods in Browning's auction store, amounting to nearly \$20,000, and kept possession of it for three days, although the debt of Browning to Lester did not amount to more than \$600 or \$700. Immediately on the seizure being made, proceedings were instituted in chancery to test its validity, and the vice chancellor ordered the plaintiff to pay \$1,000 into court to abide the issue of a suit at law, which was done, and the seizure of the goods was then withdrawn. The plaintiff brings the present action on the ground that the goods seized belonged to him and not to Browning, who held them only as an auctioneer, to sell for his account. On the part of the defendants, it was contended that the goods either belonged to Browning, or that, if they belonged to plaintiff, he had permitted Browning to assume ownership of them, and, by so doing, justified the seizure of them by Browning's creditor. On this part of the case the evidence was confictory. The Court charged the jury, that the whole question was narrowed down as to who was the owner of the goods which were seized by the receiver. If the goods which were seized belonged to the plaintiff, or if any part of them belonged to him, he was entitled to a verdict. Verdict for plaintiff—\$1,311.

ACTION OF ASSUMPSIT, ON A GUARANTEE.

In the Superior Court, (New York city,) Judge Jones presiding. William Whitlock *vs.* Peter Morton.

This was an action of assumpsit, on a guarantee given by the defendant. It appeared that, in the winter of 1842, a young man named Edward Shepard, whose father is a respectable merchant in another city, arrived here from Havre in the plaintiff's ship, and Shepard's baggage was detained by him, for the passage money of himself and others, for which he had rendered himself liable. In this dilemma young Shepard informed the defendant, who was his father's correspondent, that his baggage was detained for his passage money and *et ceteras*, and requested the defendant to guarantee the amount claimed, in order that he might get possession of his baggage. The defendant accordingly gave the plaintiff a guarantee for his lien on Shepard's baggage, and Shepard also gave the plaintiff a draft on his father for it, and the plaintiff gave him up his property. The plaintiff shortly after demanded from defendant between three or four hundred dollars as the amount of his guarantee, and the defendant, not a little astonished that Shepard's passage money could amount to so large a sum, inquired in relation to it, and learned that, besides Shepard's own passage money, he had also rendered himself liable for certain other *et ceteras*, in the shapes of a lady and two children, who accompanied him on the voyage. As it appeared that the lady or her children had no legal claim on Mr. Shepard's protection, the defendant refused to pay for her passage, and Shepard's father refused also to pay for the same reason, and the present action was instituted. For the defence, it was contended, first, that the guarantee was not an absolute one; and secondly, that the plaintiff's taking Shepard's draft on his father exonerated the defendant from his guarantee. Verdict for plaintiff—\$359.

PROMISSORY NOTE.

In the St. Louis Court of Common Pleas, before the Hon. P. H. Engle. St. Louis Gas Light Company *vs.* James B. Hill.

This was an action by the Gas Light Company, to recover of the defendant the amount of a negotiable promissory note for \$650, made by M'Gunnegle & Way, in favor of, and endorsed by the defendant to the plaintiff. The plaintiff proved the presentment and protest of the note, and notice of non-payment to defendant, and offered the note in evidence.

Defendant's counsel then moved the Court to instruct the jury as follows:—"That there being no evidence to the jury in relation to the erasure on the face of the note given in evidence, the jury are to presume that the alteration was made after the note was executed; and that, therefore, it is void, as the assent of the defendant to such alteration is not shown." This instruction was, after argument, given by the Court, and the plaintiff thereupon suffered a nonsuit.

BANK STATISTICS.

STATISTICS OF THE SAVINGS BANK IN NEW YORK.

We have received an official copy of the Twenty-Fifth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Bank of Savings, in the city of New York, for 1843, laid before the Legislature March 8th, 1844. By this report, it appears that the trustees have received, from 18,479 depositors, from 1st of January to 31st of December, 1843, the sum of \$1,157,682 50.

The following table exhibits the number of persons from whom deposits were received, and the amount deposited; the number of drafts drawn at the institution, and the amount paid out, in each month of the year, commencing in January, and ending in December, 1843:—

In the month of	No. depositors.	Am't deposited.	No. drafts paid.	Am't paid out.
January,.....	1,271	\$70,689 36	1,622	\$101,843 62
February,.....	918	48,728 91	1,476	94,646 60
March,.....	1,162	64,871 35	1,383	89,856 50
April,.....	1,042	68,083 65	1,474	102,469 75
May,.....	1,375	90,496 55	1,315	90,442 03
June,.....	2,142	150,487 00	804	42,628 58
July,.....	1,809	110,823 21	1,471	103,079 87
August,.....	1,473	89,070 24	1,210	78,120 52
September,.....	1,783	120,074 73	1,114	75,513 78
October,.....	1,472	90,600 12	1,110	77,026 24
November,.....	1,403	87,591 99	1,053	59,715 09
December,.....	2,629	166,165 39	782	34,944 26
Total,.....	18,479	\$1,157,682 50	14,814	\$950,286 84

The following table presents a general view of the institution, from the commencement of its charter, in July, 1819, to January, 1844:—

RECEIPTS.

July, 1819, to July, 1824, 5 years, from 29,437 depositors,.....	\$1,880,556 45
" 1824, to Jan., 1830, 5 " 60,820 "	3,451,915 52
Jan., 1830, " 1835, 5 " 82,535 "	4,644,604 70
" 1835, " 1840, 5 " 92,382 "	5,951,545 80
20 " 265,174 "	\$15,928,622 47
" 1840, " 1841, 1 " 16,469 "	1,095,388 27
" 1841, " 1842, 1 " 18,928 "	1,222,919 80
" 1842, " 1843, 1 " 15,352 "	978,223 15
" 1843, " 1844, 1 " 18,479 "	1,157,682 50
24 " 334,402 "	\$20,382,836 19
Deduct amount paid to 246,910 drafts,.....	18,786,487 87
	\$1,596,348 32
Add interest, up to and including January dividend, 1844,.....	2,264,566 53
Total due to depositors January 1st, 1844,.....	\$3,860,914 85

The 4,727 depositors of 1843, are classified in the report as follows:—Artists, 4; at-torneys, 18; bakers, 87; barbers, 28; blacksmiths, 78; boarding-house keepers, 40; bookbinders, 11; cartmen, 70; carpenters, 198; chandlers, 8; clerks, 223; coachma-kers, 1; coachmen, 13; cutlers, 5; distillers, 1; domestics, 1,287; druggists, 9; en-gineers, 27; farmers, 92; founders, 11; furriers, 5; gardeners, 32; grocers, 109; hatters, 17; hucksters, 11; jewellers, 34; laborers, 517; machinists, 9; masons, 62;

merchants, 91; milkmen, 15; musicians, 21; musical instrument makers, 5; painters, 37; pedlars, 50; physicians, 17; porters, 83; preachers, 9; printers, 47; riggers, 16; saddlers, 13; seamen, 58; sempstresses, 226; shoemakers, 157; shopkeepers, 172; soldiers, 4; tailors, 218; tanners, 32; tavern-keepers, 26; teachers, 36; tinmen, 11; tobaccoists, 17; upholsterers, 9; washers, 77; weavers, 12; white-washer, 1; not described, being minors, &c., 260.

The institution appears to be conducted with economy; and, from the excellence of the investments, and the respectable character of the gentlemen composing the board of trustees, at the head of which, as president, is Philip Hone, Esq., we should consider it one of the safest depositories for the surplus earnings of merchants' clerks, and persons whose income is small, or derived from salaries, in the city of New York.

BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS.

The following table exhibits the capital, per centage, and the total amount of dividends to be paid on and after the 1st of April, 1844. Also, the whole number of shares of each bank in Boston, and the par value of the same:—

Names.	Capital.	DIVIDEND.		No. shares.	Par val.
		Per cent.	Am't div. paid.		
Atlas,.....	\$500,000	5,000	\$100
Atlantic,.....	500,000	2½	\$12,500	5,000	100
Boston,.....	600,000	3½	21,000	12,000	50
City,.....	1,000,000	2½	25,000	10,000	100
Columbian,.....	500,000	2	10,000	5,000	100
Eagle,.....	500,000	2½	12,500	5,000	100
Freemans,.....	150,000	3½	5,250	1,500	100
Globe,.....	1,000,000	3	30,000	10,000	100
Granite,.....	500,000	2	10,000	5,000	100
Hamilton,.....	500,000	2	10,000	5,000	100
Massachusetts,.....	800,000	2	16,000	3,200	250
Market,.....	560,000	3	16,800	8,000	70
Mechanics,.....	150,000	3	4,500	1,500	100
Merchants,.....	2,000,000	3	60,000	20,000	100
New England,.....	1,000,000	2½	25,000	10,000	100
North,.....	750,000	2	15,000	7,500	100
Shoe and Leather,.....	500,000	3	15,000	5,000	100
Shawmut,.....	500,000	2½	12,500	5,000	100
State,.....	1,800,000	2	36,000	30,000	60
Suffolk,.....	1,000,000	4	40,000	10,000	100
South,.....	500,000	*	5,000	100
Tremont,.....	500,000	2½	12,500	5,000	100
Traders,.....	400,000	2	8,000	5,000	100
Union,.....	800,000	2½	20,000	8,000	100
Washington,.....	500,000	1½	8,750	5,000	100
Total,.....	\$17,010,000	...	426,300
Dividends paid October, 1843,.....			417,000
Excess for past six months,.....			\$9,300		

This averages about 2½ per cent, for the first six months, on the total bank capital of Boston; making, at the same rate, 5 per cent per annum. The Atlas bank makes no dividend. The lowest dividend declared is by the Washington, being 1½ per cent, and the highest by the Suffolk, being 4 per cent.

* South—no return made.

RAILROAD STATISTICS.

WESTERN RAILROAD.*

THE eighth annual report of the directors of the Western railroad corporation, made to the legislature of Massachusetts, January, 1844, occupies thirty-four pages, and gives a minute account of the proceedings of the corporation, and the results of the operations of the road, from January, 1843, to December, inclusive. The capital and loans of the company amount to \$8,319,520. The receipts during the year 1843 were—for transportation of passengers, \$275,139 64; merchandise, \$275,696 19; mails, expresses, &c., \$23,046 68; total, \$573,882 51. The expenditures during the year, embracing repairs of road, engines, cars, buildings, fuel, oil, salaries, wages, miscellaneous expenses, including certain expenditures belonging to former years; amount paid sinking fund of the Albany and Western road; interest accruing and paid during the year, being the whole amount of interest on permanent and floating debts, make a total of \$578,309 92. The amount chargeable to the business of 1843 was but \$283,826 43. The number of miles run by locomotive engines, during 1843, is as follows:—Passenger trains, 216,139; merchandise, 197,603; miscellaneous, 27,865; total, 441,608. Four passenger trains have passed over the entire length of the road every day throughout the year, with the exception of Sundays, and an occasional detention in winter; affording, by means of the Boston and Worcester railroad on one hand, and the Albany and West Stockbridge on the other, an ample, speedy, and direct communication between the cities of Boston and Albany. Regular trains, for the transportation of merchandise, have also travelled in both directions daily; supplying abundant facilities for the cheap interchange of commodities between the east and the west. The total receipts of the year, as compared with the previous year, were, from all sources—

In 1842.....	\$512,688 28
1843.....	573,882 51

Showing an increase, in 1843, of..... \$61,192 23

The aggregate increase, from passengers and merchandise, in the last eight months of 1843, over the corresponding period of 1842, was \$59,797 86; although the rates charged, both for passengers and freight, were, in April, 1843, considerably reduced from that charged in 1842;—affording pretty conclusive evidence in favor of the doctrine of low fares. The Western company voted, in 1843, to reduce the rate for first class through-passengers to two cents per mile, and for way-passengers two and a half cents per mile, and to make a proportionate reduction in the second class passengers, provided the Boston and Worcester company should concur in the reduction; but the latter company refused their assent, and the vote was defeated.

In January, 1842, the rates for first class through-passengers, from Boston to Albany, was \$5 50; in April, 1842, it was reduced to \$5 00; in December, 1842, it was advanced to \$6 00; in April, 1843, it was reduced to \$4 00; in December, 1843, it was advanced to \$5 00. The rates for first class way-passengers, during the past two years, have not materially varied from three cents per mile; and the rate for second class passengers has been two-thirds the rates for the first class.

The number of way-passengers was—

	1st Class.	2d Class.	Total.
In 1842.....	148,500	23,366	171,866
1843.....	140,425	33,945½	174,370½
Difference....	8,085	Diminution, 10,579½	Increase, 2,504½

* The Western railroad completes the chain from Boston to Buffalo.

	1st Class.	2d Class.	Total.
For the last eight months of 1842,.....	102,193½	17,840	120,033½
" " " 1843,.....	103,527	28,115½	131,642½
Difference, (increase,).....	1,333½	10,275½	11,609

The whole number of tons carried one mile by the merchandise trains, during the year, was, nett, in 1843, 9,414,621; in 1842, 6,211,971;—increase in 1843, 3,202,650.

The whole tonnage is equal to 60,350 tons, carried over the whole length of the road, or 156 miles.

The number of miles run by locomotives with merchandise trains, in 1843, being 197,603, we find it equal to 1,267 trips through, averaging 47½ tons each train, nett.

The through-freight from Boston to Albany was, in 1842, 2,472 tons; and in 1843, 5,268 tons; showing an increase in the amount of through-freight, going west, of 2,896 tons.

The Norwich and Worcester, the Housatonic, the Hartford and Springfield, which is now in progress, and will probably be completed in October next, are all-important to the Western road, particularly in winter. The Hudson and Berkshire railroad has also many important relations with the Western. The connection with the Boston and Worcester railroad, however, is so essential, and the interests of the Western road so much involved in the terms upon which that connection is maintained, that it has attracted a great deal of the attention of the board of directors. The opinion has been prevalent that the existing terms of the Worcester and Boston road are onerous to the Western corporation, and measures have been taken to bring the whole matter under revision. It is to be hoped that the result may be such as, while it shall advance the interests of the Western road, shall, at the same time, be perfectly fair and equitable. Could the business of the two corporations be kept as distinct as that of others similarly situated, the interests of this corporation would be greatly promoted. As an index to the amount of income accruing to the Boston and Worcester railroad corporation from the joint business of the two roads, it is proper to state that the amount derived from it by that corporation, during the year 1843, is about \$153,000.

The report furnishes a table showing the entire cost of the Western road to December 31, 1843, from which it appears that the amount paid to December 31, 1842, was \$5,565,552 46; the amount paid in 1843, \$179,309 25. The total amount paid to December, 1843, was \$5,744,861 71. The entire cost of the Albany and West Stock-bridge road, up to December 31, 1843, was \$1,756,342 78.

The receipts from passengers, freights, and other sources, as mails, expresses, &c., in each month of 1843, was as follows:—

1843.	Passengers.	Freight.	Other sources, mails, expresses, &c.	Total.
January,.....	\$14,412 73	\$13,524 32	\$1,915 09	\$29,852 14
February,.....	11,612 46	10,490 62	1,751 92	23,854 50
March,.....	13,345 11	15,476 47	1,929 90	30,751 48
April,.....	17,922 88	17,005 56	1,770 89	36,699 33
May,.....	24,075 88	27,511 14	1,828 57	53,415 59
June,.....	31,014 73	21,108 84	1,771 09	53,894 66
July,.....	29,438 55	23,399 00	1,771 81	54,609 36
August,.....	38,346 73	24,325 76	1,768 21	64,440 70
September,.....	34,435 20	26,197 17	1,769 55	62,401 92
October,.....	26,307 80	33,950 22	2,355 89	62,613 91
November,.....	19,189 58	38,136 34	2,066 42	59,392 34
December,.....	15,037 99	24,571 25	2,347 34	41,956 58
Total,.....	\$275,139 64	\$275,696 19	\$23,046 68	\$573,882 51

The following statement shows the number of passengers, through and way, in each class, over the Western railroad, for the year ending December 31st, 1843:—

1843.	THROUGH.		WAY.		TOTAL.	
	1st Class.	2d Class.	1st Class.	2d Class.	1st Class.	2d Class.
January,.....	448½	88	9,576½	1,066	10,025	1,154
February,....	362½	51½	7,280	873½	7,642½	925
March,.....	438½	98	8,761	1,215	9,199½	1,313
April,.....	864	384	11,280½	2,675½	12,144½	3,059½
May,.....	1,802	857½	11,679	3,084½	13,481	3,942
June,.....	2,844½	1,017	12,738	3,540½	15,582½	4,557½
July,.....	2,727	669½	14,084	2,948	16,811	3,617½
August,.....	3,881	707½	16,820½	3,086	20,701½	3,793½
September,...	2,884½	966	15,819½	4,207½	18,704	5,173½
October,.....	1,905½	972	13,196½	4,581	15,102	5,553
November,...	1,182	564	10,066½	3,988½	11,248½	4,552½
December,....	647	233	9,123	2,679½	9,770	2,912½
Total,....	19,987	6,608	140,425	33,945½	160,412	40,553½

The amount of freight received at and sent from Boston, in connection with the Western road, was, in 1842, 41,028 tons; 1843, 56,368;—increase, 15,340 tons.

Flour received at Boston from Albany—

In 1842,.....	85,986 bbls.	In 1843,.....	123,366 bbls.
Wool in 1842,.....	6,713 bales.	Wool in 1843,.....	11,996 bales.

The connection of the Western railroad with other railroads, which enter it at various points, is also a subject of great importance.

RAILROADS OF NEW YORK.

We have received the report of the secretary of state, pursuant to the resolution of the assembly of New York, of February 2, 1843, relative to the railroad statistics of the state. This report contains much valuable information, though it is not as full and explicit as could be desired. To be of the most practical value, it should extend over the whole number of years during which the several railroads have been in operation, and should embody the results of each year, from their commencement to the present time. Of the seventeen railroad corporations of the state, eleven of them have complied with the requirements of February 2, 1843, leaving the following companies in default, viz : New York and Erie, Buffalo and Black Rock, Hudson and Berkshire, Lewiston, Long Island, and New York and Harlem.

An intelligent correspondent of the Albany Argus has arranged, from the returns reported by the secretary of the state, the following tables, to which we have made some additions from the report; and which, together with his remarks, embraces all that is of interest in the returns :—

Name of Road.	LENGTH.		Cost of construction up to 1844.	No. of through passengers.	No. of way pass.
	Miles.	Chains.			
1. Attica and Buffalo,.....	31.36		\$268,000	60,752	6,144
2. Tonawanda,.....	43.00		600,000	50,709	16,895
3. Auburn and Rochester,.....	78.00		1,727,000	48,997	56,191
4. Auburn and Syracuse,.....	26.00		761,000	75,518	7,798
5. Syracuse and Utica,.....	53.00		1,080,000	78,780	36,063
6. Utica and Schenectady,.....	78.00		2,047,000	95,184	52,684
7. Mohawk and Hudson,.....	16.68		*1,054,000	115,290	None.
8. Schenectady and Troy,.....	20.40		634,000	66,421	4,623
9. Rensselaer and Saratoga,.....	25.00		476,000	16,215	14,947
10. Saratoga and Schenectady,....	22.00		313,000
11. Albany and West Stockbridge,	38.20		1,753,000	43,179	20,442
Totals,.....	431.64		\$10,713,000

* Includes cost of new line at Schenectady.

Average cost per mile of 432 miles of railroad, \$24,800.

The roads marked 1 to 7, inclusive, form the continuous chain from Lake Erie to the Hudson—distance, 326½ miles, or 36½ miles less than the Erie canal.

The "cost of construction" includes the first cost of road and superstructure, land damages, &c.; the necessary fixtures, depots, and carriage-houses; together with locomotives, freight and passenger trains, and all expenses attending the construction and operation of the several roads, except "expenses for repairing and running road."

RECEIPTS AND EXPENSES FOR THE YEAR 1843.

Name of Road.	RECEIPTS. For passen- gers and freight.	EXPENSES. Repairs and running road.	EXCESS. Receipts over expenses.	Receipts from through-pas- sengers.	Receipts from way-passen- gers.
Attica and Buffalo,.....	\$45,900	\$19,150	\$26,750	\$40,467 72	\$2,369 16
Tonawanda,.....	76,200	43,610	32,590	42,267 34	17,395 68
Auburn and Rochester,....	189,700	100,200	89,500	112,236 05	58,176 88
Auburn and Syracuse,.....	86,300	38,530	47,770
Syracuse and Utica,.....	163,700	66,800	96,900	118,170 00	29,183 00
Utica and Schenectady,....	*304,000	128,850	175,150	227,844 88	49,318 93
Mohawk and Hudson,.....	69,900	58,780	11,120	49,782 77
Schenectady and Troy,....	28,000	30,410	a	26,159 44	1,044 62
Rensselaer and Saratoga,...	44,300	22,360	21,940	15,972 62	5,490 92
Saratoga and Schenectady,.	32,200	25,810	6,390	16,963 05	8,875 81
Albany & W. Stockbridge,	no income.

Total,.....	\$1,040,200	\$534,500	\$508,110
Expenses,.....	534,500	a 2,410 deficit.

Excess receipts,.... \$505,700 over expenses.

Recurring again to the total "cost of construction," \$10,713,000, and deducting the cost of the Albany and West Stockbridge Railroad, (from which "no income is derived,") \$1,753,000, we have \$8,960,000, the cost of construction, or total outlay for the remaining ten roads, from which are derived the aggregate income of \$505,700. From this statement results \$8,960,000—\$505,700—1; .56, or 5 6.10 per cent income on the capital invested.

This ranges a little higher than the railroads of Massachusetts, and is about the same as the per centage on some 2,000 miles of railroads in the United States, as ascertained by the Chevalier De Gerstner, in 1839, after a personal inspection of all the principal roads in this country.

The Utica and Schenectady railroad being prohibited from carrying freight, and the receipts being confined to passengers alone, (with the exception of the U. S. mail, and miscellaneous receipts,) the statistics are consequently more simplified, and susceptible of direct application, than upon roads which derive an income promiscuously from passengers, freight, and other articles charged by number, bulk, weight, &c. We have therefore selected the data furnished by this road, for the purpose of getting at a few items of information more definitely than they are set forth, or could be easily obtained from the returns in reference to any of the other roads:—

The receipts from through-passengers on this road, during the year 1843, (omitting receipts from U. S. mail, and miscellaneous,) were.....	\$227,900
From way-passengers,.....	49,300
Total,.....	\$277,200
Expenses of running road, and repairs,.....	128,850
Excess of receipts over expenses,.....	\$148,350
Miles run by passenger trains,.....	130,200

* The Utica and Schenectady railroad is prohibited by its charter from carrying freight. This amount is made up as follows:—

Income from passengers,.....	\$277,160
" U. S. mail,.....	11,700
Miscellaneous receipts,.....	15,140
Total,.....	\$304,000

Number of through-passengers,.....	95,200
" way-passengers,.....	52,700
Total,.....	147,900

From this data we have obtained the following results, which we give without the detail of figures and calculation. They may be verified by a simple arithmetical process. They are not strictly correct, but approximate very closely to accuracy.

It is necessary to observe that they apply to the operations of one year only, (1843,) and are far from the average result, which would be shown by taking into account the statistics for a series of years:—

The expense for running road, and repairs, is \$1 for every mile run, within a fraction.

The account for running road is not returned separate from that of repairs.

52,700 way-passengers, equivalent to 20,600 through-passengers, assuming that they pay in the same proportion.

Through-passengers, 95,200; way-passengers, equivalent to 20,600. Total passengers, (assumed,) 115,800.

Expense per through-passenger, \$1 11.

Expense per passenger per mile, 1 cent and 4 mills.

Amount received per through-passenger, \$2 39.

Amount received per passenger per mile, 3 cents and 1 mill.

The charge per mile, at \$2 50 for 78 miles, (the rate established during the last season, the previous rate having been \$3,) is 3 cents and 2 mills.

As a considerable portion of the receipts are derived from passengers in the second class of cars, at a reduced rate, it would be supposed that the amount received per mile, from the whole number of passengers, would fall below the maximum rate, showing a greater difference between the average amount received per passenger, (3c. 1m.,) and the highest rate charged; (3c. 2m.;) but this may be explained by stating that way-passengers contribute more to the high than the low fares, and that the receipts for 1843 accrued, to some extent, before the reduction of fare from \$3 to \$2 50 took place. The period at which this occurred, we have not ascertained.

The dividends declared for this road, for the last year, were—One 1st February, of 5 per cent, and one 1st August, of 4 per cent—\$180,000.

There are many other interesting results which may be deduced from the data furnished in this report, in regard to the Utica and Schenectady railroad, and others, which we must necessarily omit in the present article.

CENTRAL (MICH.) RAILROAD.

The business on this road is fast increasing. The receipts for February were—

For passengers,.....	\$2,311 88
" freight,.....	7,805 31
" old iron,.....	160 00
Total,.....	\$10,277 19
Corresponding month in 1843,.....	2,778 92
Excess,.....	\$7,588 97

Which is a larger increase than has taken place on any other railroad in this country. A bill has just passed the legislature of Michigan, extending the road to Kalamazoo, from which the business will be largely increased.

NORWICH AND WORCESTER RAILROAD.

The total receipts of this road, from passengers, freight, mail, &c., in 1843, were \$162,335 93; the total amount of expenses paid in 1843, \$137,464 95. The whole number of miles run during the year, by passenger trains, freight, and for road-clearing, was 146,075. No dividend was declared during the year ending 31st of December, 1843.

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

RATES OF TOLL ON ALL THE CANALS OF NEW YORK.

Rates of Toll, established by the Canal Board, on Persons and Property transported on all the navigable Canals of the State, for the year 1844.

PROVISIONS, ETC.

1. On flour, salted beef and pork, butter, cheese, tallow, lard, beer, and cider, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	cts. m. f.
2. On bran and ship-stuffs in bulk, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5

IRON, MINERALS, ORES, ETC.

3. On salt manufactured in this state, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 2 3
4. On foreign salt, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	3 0 0
5. 1st—On gypsum, the product of this state, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 2 3
2d—On foreign gypsum, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5
6. On brick, sand, lime, clay, earth, leached ashes, manure, and iron ore, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 2 3
7. On pot and pearl ashes, kelp, charcoal, broken castings, scrap iron, and pig iron, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5
8. On mineral coal, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5
9. On stove and all other iron castings, except machines, and the parts thereof, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5
10. On copperas and manganese, going towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5
11. On bar and pig lead, going towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5

FURS, PELTRY, SKINS, ETC.

12. On furs and peltry, (except deer, buffalo, and moose skins,) per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	1 0 0
13. On deer, buffalo, and moose skins, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 5 0
14. On sheep skins, and other raw hides of domestic animals of the United States, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5
15. On imported raw hides, of domestic and other animals, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 5 0

FURNITURE, ETC.

16. On household furniture, accompanied by and actually belonging to families emigrating, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5
17. On carts, wagons, sleighs, ploughs, and mechanics' tools necessary for the owner's individual use, when accompanied by the owner, emigrating for the purpose of settlement, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 4 5

STONE, SLATE, ETC.

18. On slate and tile for roofing, and stoneware, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,....	0 4 5
19. On all stone, wrought or unwrought, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 2 3

LUMBER, WOOD, ETC.

20. On timber, squared and round, per 100 cubic feet per mile, if carried in boats,.....	0 5 0
21. On the same, if carried in rafts, (except dock-sticks, as in next item,) per 100 cubic feet per mile,.....	1 0 0
22. On round dock-sticks, passing in cribs, separate from every other kind of timber, per 100 cubic feet per mile,.....	1 0 0
23. On blocks of timber, for paving streets, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0 2 0
24. 1st—On boards, plank, scantling, and sawed timber, reduced to inch measure, and all siding, lath, and other sawed stuff, less than one inch thick, carried in boats, (except such as is enumerated in regulations Nos. 26 and 35,) per 1,000 feet per mile,.....	0 5 0
24. 2d—On the same, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 feet per mile,.....	2 0 0
25. On mahogany, (except veneering,) reduced to inch measure, per 1,000 feet per mile,.....	1 5 0

26. On sawed lath, of less than ten feet in length, split lath, hoop-poles, handspikes, rowing oars, broom-handles, spokes, hubs, tree-nails, felloes, boat-knees, and plane-stocks, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	2	0
27. On staves and heading, transported in boats, per 1,000 lbs. per mile, 1st, for pipes and hogsheds,.....	0	1	5
2d, for barrels,.....	0	2	0
28. On the same, if transported in rafts, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	5	0
29. On shingles, per M. per mile, carried in boats,.....	0	1	0
30. On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile,.....	0	4	0
31. On split posts, (not exceeding ten feet in length,) and rails for fencing, (not exceeding fourteen feet in length,) per M. per mile, carried in boats,....	2	0	0
32. On the same, if conveyed in rafts, per M. per mile,.....	8	0	0
33. On wood for fuel, (except such as may be used in the manufacture of salt, which shall be exempt from toll,) and tan-bark, per cord per mile,.....	1	0	0
34. On the same, if transported in rafts, per cord per mile,.....	2	0	0
35. On sawed stuff for window-blinds, not exceeding one-fourth of an inch in thickness, and window-sashes, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	5	0

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS, ETC.

36. On cotton and wool, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	4	5
37. On live cattle, sheep, hogs, horns, hoofs, and bones, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	4	5
38. On horses, (and each horse, when not weighed, to be computed at 900 lbs.,) per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	5	0
39. On rags, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	4	5
40. On hemp, Manilla, and unmanufactured tobacco, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	4	5
41. On pressed hay, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	2	3
42. On wheat, and all other agricultural productions of the United States, not particularly specified, and not being merchandise, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	4	5
43. On merchandise, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	9	0

ARTICLES NOT ENUMERATED.

44. On all articles not enumerated or excepted, passing from tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	9	0
45. On all articles not enumerated or excepted, passing towards tide-water, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	4	5

BOATS AND PASSENGERS.

46. On boats chiefly used for the transportation of persons, navigating any of the canals, per mile,.....	5	0	0
47. On boats used chiefly for the transportation of property, per mile,.....	2	0	0
48. On all persons over ten years of age, per mile,.....	0	0	5
49. On articles of the manufacture of the United States, going towards tide-water, although they may be enumerated in the foregoing lists, per 1,000 lbs. per mile,.....	0	4	5

ALTERATIONS IN THE NEW CHINESE TARIFF.

The Canton Register, of November 21st, 1843, says:—"We gather, from an official communication from his excellency, the imperial commissioner, that an alteration has been made in the new tariff on "foreign ginseng," in consequence of some representations of the American consul. The correction in the tariff will be as follows:—

22 ginseng, 1st quality, per 100 catties, 38t.....	X2.10ths 7 6
" 2d " or refuse, per 100 catties,.....	3t. 5m. X8.10ths 2 8
New duty on 100 catties ginseng, all qualities,.....	10 4

Also, that on a careful examination of the English version of the tariff, promulgated on the 22d of July last, it has been discovered that the article "sea-otter skins" is inserted at one mace five candareens each, (1m. 5c.,) instead of one tael five mace each, (1t. 5m.;) which typographical error is hereby pointed out, and is to be corrected accordingly."

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS OF CHINA,

ON THE SUBJECT OF WAREHOUSES, OLD AND NEW MERCHANTS, ETC.

A proclamation of their Excellencies, the imperial commissioner, Keying; the governor-general of Canton, Kekung; the deputy-governor, Ching; and the collector of customs, Wan, translated from the Chinese, and officially published in the Hong-Kong Gazette, of November 9, 1843, received at the office of the Merchants' Magazine, declares as follows:—

"That the warehouses belonging to the new merchants, (outside men,) and those which appertain to the old merchants, (i. e., Hong merchants,) are now to be considered as identical, without any difference whatsoever. Its object is also to encourage and promote a wide extension of the trade, inasmuch as the merchants of all nations resort to the province of Canton for the purposes of traffic.

"The old tariff was in the hands of official merchants, who were expressly appointed to act as deputies and commissioners in this department. Hence, for a long while, difficulties arose day after day, till they affected the merchants of every nation; and every merchant that traverses the ocean became involved in a variety of ways.

"Of late, a new tariff has been settled. Merchants of every nation are allowed, and commanded to act with candor, and the mutual fidelity of merchants who feel themselves to be as strangers and guests. All are permitted to buy and sell, to traffic, and make merchandise, but are not permitted to indulge in a pertinacious adherence to their own decisions, nor to lay down rules and limitations. To the end that, in time to come, no difference should be felt between the merchants of former days and merchants who have recently opened their stores and warehouses, one thing alone is adjudged to be necessary; which is, that traders be men of honesty and truth, and faithful to their engagements with men from afar. All such men have full leave and license to participate in the trade. On the other hand, the old Hong merchants are not allowed to monopolize, and seek their own advantage, to the exclusion of all other persons, notwithstanding, in former times, all the said Hong merchants were the officers of government, who set the price at which the goods were to be sold, and levied fees, under a variety of names and denominations.

"Since that time, our great ministers, and high officers aforementioned, memorialized the emperor, begging that he would authorize them to frame measures for the furtherance of justice and the common good, and to draw up regulations, entirely new from the commencement to the close; and whatever they found incompatible with the general good, to abolish and repeal it altogether. But, with respect to the warehouses of the old and the new merchants, it was not their intention to meddle in any conceivable way; as all the aforesaid merchants' warehouses are things which workmen have need of, and as to the packhouses, and such like places, they cannot but be indispensable. Old experienced merchants, who have travelled much, and understand clearly the nature of the principle, have already plainly expressed it in words, and have said that it alike respects the interests of both parties, the buyer and the seller; so that it is no longer necessary to ask the magistrate any questions about it. And the principle is this, namely; that the warehouses of every nation ought to be really profitable things, and should not involve the owner in trouble; but, in the conduct of business, are destined to have a great many advantages.

"We, the high commissioner, &c., made many inquiries concerning the old, as well as the new merchants' warehouses; but there is no occasion for looking backwards or forwards, as we are viewing each other with a hope that the merchants' ships of every nation will soon open their holds, and land their cargoes. More than this is neither necessary nor convenient. It has appeared that the wish of the Hong merchants is to thrust aside, and to mislead; and that the question of letting the new warehouses is encumbered with many doubts and anxieties. Hence we halt and stumble, and make no advances. To accelerate the progress of trade, this proclamation is issued; and it is published with a special reference to the old and the new warehouses, that all men may know and understand that, *ever after this, there shall be no difference between the old and the new warehouses*; and that, agreeably to the tenor and spirit of the tariff, merchants of every nation shall trade on the same footing, always saving and excepting those who are leagued together with the object of defrauding the revenue, and persons who deal in opium, or get gain by swindling and knavish practices; all of which offences are severally deserving of punishment, since those who thus, or in any other way, defy the laws, are not to be endured.

"Among other duties which you are bound to perform, listen! you who trade justly, to what each experienced merchant has to say; and, once for all, cease to trouble the magistrate with your inquiries. Ever since the new regulations began to be in force, ships have clustered together in number like the clouds of Heaven. Take heed, therefore, and do not, as formerly, thrust aside and mislead; being assured that if business is done negligently, it will have some evil consequence. The high commissioner and his colleagues again and again enjoin you and exhort you to mark the intent and meaning of this proclamation. Do not refuse to do this. A special edict."

REGULATIONS AT THE PORTS OF MARIEL AND CARDENAS.

The following official information, translated from the Spanish, and communicated to the department of state at Washington by the charge d'affaires, *ad interim*, of Spain, near this government, is published in the Merchants' Magazine for the benefit of those whom it may concern:—

Concessions made in favor of the ports of Mariel and Cardenas, as provisional measures, subject to such alterations as experience may show to be necessary:—

1. Spanish vessels, registered in national ports, may enter the said ports, and discharge and load, under the existing regulations.
2. Vessels of any other nation, coming in ballast, to take in the productions of the country, may also be admitted.
3. National and foreign vessels, bringing from abroad the following articles, may also be admitted, viz: Beams, boards, and planks; staves, wooden boxes, hogsheads and barrels, mounted or unmounted; tiles; boards for sugar boxes; iron moulds; sheet brass or zinc, for sugar-making; hemp or linen bags and ropes; salt beef or pork; dried cod, or other fish; salt from the island; iron nails; steam-engines, for sugar-making; machines and sieves for sugar factories; separate parts of machines for sugar-making; other articles for the same purpose; bricks.
4. The said vessels bringing other articles than those abovementioned, cannot enter the said ports without having first discharged in the established ports of the island the articles, the direct importation of which is prohibited in the ports here named.

CONCESSIONS IN FAVOR OF SAGUA.

Fruits alone may be exported from Sagua under any flag, and from any place; and, in consequence, vessels may enter in ballast, in order to carry away fruits.

ENTREPOT AT CAMPEACHY.

The Siglio XIX., a newspaper printed at Merida, publishes a decree of the governor of Yucatan, establishing an entrepot for imported goods at Campeachy. The following are the provisions of the decree:—

Art. 1. A mercantile depot is to be established in the port of Campeachy, where all goods may be stored for one year, without being liable to duty, on paying 2 per cent for storage; which 2 per cent is payable within thirty days after the goods are entered.

Art. 2. Goods or merchandise taken from the depot before the end of a year, for exportation, are not subject to either state or municipal duty.

Art. 3. Goods or merchandise taken from the depot, for the state market, or which have remained a whole year in the depot, will pay both state and municipal duty.

Art. 4. Provisions, pitch, and inflammable stuffs, empty vessels of every description, and naval stores, are prohibited from being stored in the depot.

Art. 5. The government of the depot will be administered by officers appointed by the state.

TONNAGE DUTIES OF TEXAS.

The following copy of a new revenue law of Texas, entitled "An act for the protection and encouragement of the commerce of the republic of Texas," and the information annexed to it, have been received at the department of state, at Washington, (March 14, 1844,) from the United States consuls at Galveston and Sabine, Texas:—

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Republic of Texas, in Congress assembled,* That, from and after the passage of this act, the collectors of the various ports of this republic shall be required to lay (levy) upon, and collect from all foreign vessels belonging to powers between which, and this republic, no treaty exists, making other provision, a tonnage of one dollar per ton.

SEC. 2. *Be it further enacted,* That vessels bearing the flag of this republic have the exclusive privilege of the coasting trade, and that they be free from the charge of tonnage duties on arriving in any ports of this republic; and that all laws contravening the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

SAMUEL HOUSTON.

Approved February 5th, 1844.

The former duty was sixty cents per ton on sailing vessels, and thirty cents on steamboats, according to register tonnage. The present law imposes the same duty on both; but the president of the republic, using a discretionary power, has declared that the tonnage duty of one dollar shall be imposed on steamboats according to their carrying capacity only.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

CANAL COMMERCE AT PITTSBURGH, PA.—1842-43.

STATEMENT OF THE LEADING ARTICLES SHIPPED FROM, AND RECEIVED AT PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA, BY THE CANAL, IN THE YEARS 1842 AND 1843.

Shipped eastward, from Pittsburgh.

Articles.	1843.	1842.	Inc. in 1843.
Flour,.....bbls.	130,858	114,103	16,755
Bacon,.....lbs.	23,004,922	13,286,223	9,718,699
Butter and cheese,.....	1,433,266	956,454	476,812
Lard and tallow,.....	2,673,423	1,362,685	1,310,751
Pork,.....bbls.	3,124	2,658	466
Wool,.....lbs.	2,500,789	1,268,733	1,252,056
Cotton,.....	1,080,337	952,985	127,352
Hemp,.....	1,289,236	147,806	1,141,430
Tobacco,.....	18,173,849	13,998,348	4,175,501
Whiskey,.....galls.	115,242	65,076	50,166
Oil,.....	45,661	10,130	35,551
Sundries,.....lbs.	2,661,312	1,651,889	1,009,423

Brought westward, to Pittsburgh.

Articles.	1843.	1842.	Inc. in 1843.
Hardware,.....lbs.	5,288,527	2,324,519	2,904,008
Queensware,.....	1,750,075	1,080,175	669,900
Mdse., including brown muslins,.....	21,390,266	14,540,412	6,849,854
Groceries, including coffee,.....	13,061,951	4,952,577	8,109,374
Tobacco, manufactured,.....	431,238	368,618	62,620
Leather,.....	372,402	30,642	341,760
Drugs and dye-stuffs,.....	769,091	182,193	586,898
Oil,.....galls.	33,610	16,355	17,255
Clay and gypsum,.....tons	317	196	121
Salt,.....bush.	211,392	188,508	22,884
Blooms,.....lbs.	17,838,936	14,106,698	3,732,238
Sundries,.....	1,523,453	905,407	618,046

Increase on the above twelve items shipped eastward, 23,760,854 lbs., or 11,880 tons; increase on the eleven items brought westward, (omitting salt,) 24,289,248 lbs., or 12,144 tons.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF SANDUSKY, HURON, AND MILAN.

A subscriber, residing at Sandusky, has furnished, for publication in this Magazine, the following tables, exhibiting the quantity and value of the exports of Sandusky, Huron, and Milan, for the year 1843. Our correspondent says—"I can predict, with safety, a very large increase of produce shipped from this port, after the completion of another railroad, now rapidly progressing, (fifty-six miles long,) terminating in the heart of the richest wheat-growing country in the state, (Richland.) This road cuts off Milan from the best trade she is now enjoying. It will be completed in eighteen months."

STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF SANDUSKY, FOR THE YEAR 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Wheat, bush.....	441,633	\$375,388 05	Oats, bush.....	2,564	\$641 00
Corn, bush.....	19,090	6,681 50	Beans, bbls.....	103	412 00
Pork, bbls.....	12,638	101,104 00	Whiskey, and high		
Beef, bbls.....	1,515	9,468 75	wines, bbls.....	1,714	17,140 00
Flour, bbls.....	32,219	153,040 25	Furs, packs.....	219	6,500 00
Lard, bbls.....	1,308	13,080 00	Rags, lbs.....	31,247	937 41
" kegs.....	1,519	5,316 50	Nuts, bbls.....	23	69 00
Butter, kegs.....	2,065	14,455 00	Oil, bbls.....	4	98 00
Tallow, bbls.....	199	3,980 00	Oil-cake meal, bbls.	12	12 00
Seeds, bbls.....	4,851	48,510 00	Live hogs, No.....	1,500	4,500 00
Ashes, casks.....	2,164	43,280 00	Scraps, bbls.....	147	294 00
Wool, lbs.....	57,695	16,154 60	Sundries, bbls. and		
Feathers, lbs.....	6,345	2,220 75	boxes.....	290	1,300 00
Hides, green, No...	1,282	4,615 20	Stone, cords.....	1,500	3,000 00
Ginseng, bbls.....	124	2,480 00	Crude plaster, tons.	1,000	4,500 00
Beeswax, bbls.....	66	3,564 00	Ground " tons.	200	1,600 00
Fruit, bbls.....	135	270 00	Cut cedar posts, No.	80	400 00
Soap and candles,					
boxes.....	100	350 00	Total,.....		\$845,362 01

IMPORTS INTO THE PORT OF SANDUSKY, IN 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Articles.	Quantity.
Lumber, M. feet.....	1,092	Fish, bbls.....	474
Shingles, M.....	1,246	Salt, bbls.....	21,000
Shingle-bolts, cords.....	73	Merchandise, tons.....	5,500
Lath, M.....	64		

STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FROM HURON AND MILAN, FOR THE YEAR 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Wheat, bush.....	586,051	\$498,143 35	Butter, kegs.....	1,075	\$7,525 00
Corn, bush.....	11,856	4,149 60	Flaxseed, bbls.....	384	1,536 00
Oats, bush.....	4,112	1,028 00	Cloverseed, bbls....	65	975 00
Pork, bbls.....	7,560	60,480 00	Hides, green, lbs....	25,950	1,038 00
Flour, bbls.....	24,179	102,760 75	Wool, lbs.....	39,980	11,194 40
Ashes, casks.....	2,582	51,640 00	Feathers, lbs.....	1,965	687 75
High wines, bbls....	876	10,512 00	Staves, No.....	854,048	17,080 00
Whiskey, bbls.....	1,065	9,052 50	Live hogs, tons.....	50	2,000 00
Beef, bbls.....	2,172	13,575 00	Tobacco, hhds.....	21	840 00
Timothy-seed, bbls.	1,559	7,405 25	Grindstones, tons...	10	150 00
Tallow, bbls.....	75	1,125 00	Pig iron, tons.....	20	900 00
Lard, bbls.....	520	5,200 00			
" kegs.....	600	2,100 00	Total,.....		\$811,097 60

IMPORTS INTO THE PORTS OF HURON AND MILAN, IN 1843.

Articles.	Quantity.	Articles.	Quantity.
Merchandise, tons.....	20,550	Shingles, M.....	1,075
Salt, bbls.....	14,350	Shingle-bolts, cords.....	225
Fish, bbls.....	1,055	Stone, cords.....	25
Plaster, bbls.....	455	Steamboat wood, cords.....	3,538
Lumber, feet.....	90,989		

BRITISH EAST INDIA SHIPPING TRADE.

The quarterly statement, printed by the East India and China Association, of the British ships entered inwards and cleared outwards from and to places within the limits of the company's charter, has recently made its appearance, and presents a survey of the whole of the years 1842 and 1843. The following table will give an idea of the company's operations, and its increase and decrease :—

ENTERED INWARDS.				CLEARED OUTWARDS.			
	Years.	No. ships.	Tons.		Years.	No. ships.	Tons.
London,.....	1842	525	200,600	London,.....	1842	454	197,338
"	1843	542	222,810	"	1843	395	162,628
Liverpool,....	1842	189	80,066	Liverpool,....	1842	210	89,525
"	1843	162	73,170	"	1843	255	99,960
Bristol and } Hull,..... }	1842	10	3,879	Bristol and } Hull,..... }	1842	11	3,421
"	1843	12	4,447	"	1843	11	4,259
Oth. B. ports.,	1842	27	8,882	Oth. B. ports.,	1842	145	56,485
"	1843	44	16,050	"	1843	165	59,665
Of the above, there were from—				Of the above, there were for—			
Calcutta,....	1842	224	98,921	Mauritius,...	1842	167	61,101
"	1843	255	121,146	"	1843	144	56,984
Mauritius,....	1842	105	24,421	Bombay,....	1842	124	73,686
"	1843	71	20,107	"	1843	111	55,917
Bombay,....	1842	107	59,408	Cape of } G'd Hope, }	1842	77	18,182
"	1843	90	50,990	"	1843	114	29,602

EXPORTS FROM JAVA FOR TEN YEARS.

A Table showing the quantity of Exports from Java in each year, from 1833 to 1842, inclusive, derived from a Java Prices-Current, furnished for publication in the Merchants' Magazine.

LIST OF EXPORTS FROM JAVA FOR TEN YEARS.

Years.	Coffee. Piculs.	Sugar. Piculs.	Rice. Piculs.	Indigo. Piculs.	Tin. Piculs.	Nutmegs. Piculs.
1833,.....	260,166	210,947	1,339,420	217,480	44,314	1,171
1834,.....	455,808	367,131	174,950	250,423	39,165	4,200
1835,.....	446,871	439,454	767,310	533,753	40,836	3,886
1836,.....	498,077	509,513	1,092,900	407,100	47,739	5,022
1837,.....	684,947	676,085	1,003,550	822,492	44,457	3,778
1838,.....	590,000	735,000	950,000	743,000	14,513	5,830
1839,.....	757,476	871,747	1,112,000	1,191,636	47,631	5,026
1840,.....	1,132,124	1,024,493	680,909	2,123,911	62,334	3,600
1841,.....	961,466	1,046,576	676,212	1,827,386	48,339	5,125
1842,.....	1,013,854	884,685	884,157	1,627,437	69,127	5,129

LIST OF EXPORTS FROM JAVA FOR TEN YEARS—Continued.

Years.	Mace. Piculs.	Cloves. Piculs.	Rattans. Piculs.	Hides. Pieces.	Arrack. Leaguers.	Pepper. Piculs.
1833,.....	630	1,942	16,731	75,421	1,433	5,407
1834,.....	1,192	4,040	14,909	53,000	1,497	7,704
1835,.....	1,606	4,566	4,905	139,000	2,175	11,869
1836,.....	990	2,185	49,968	120,000	1,477	7,066
1837,.....	1,213	2,925	33,539	93,000	1,663	12,487
1838,.....	1,500	2,912	35,360	71,000	2,954	8,577
1839,.....	1,580	2,334	40,068	130,000	4,261	11,043
1840,.....	870	53	28,032	110,494	5,261	9,911
1841,.....	1,171	7,600	37,017	120,072	4,670	13,245
1842,.....	1,432	1,718	36,594	167,677	4,668	10,441

MERCHANDISE INSPECTED, &c., IN NEW YORK.

Pursuant to requirements of an act of the state of New York "concerning the inspection laws," the Hon. Samuel Young, secretary of the state, transmitted, on the 1st

of March, 1844, a statement of the reports of the inspectors, measurers, and weighers of provisions and produce, exhibiting the quantity and value of the property inspected, measured, and weighed, during the year 1843. From an official copy of this report, which has been published by the legislature, we derive the following condensed statement:—

The whole number of inspectors, weighers, and measurers, in commission during the year 1843, was 379. Of this number, only 68 transmitted their returns to the state department. By the report of the measurer-general of grain, in the city of New York, it appears that there were measured, during the year 1843, 2,224,641 bushels of grain, valued at \$1,121,439 06;—that 593,433½ bushels had been received from other states; leaving 1,631,206½ bushels as the product of the state of New York. The present weigher-general of merchandise, of the city of New York, received his appointment on the 4th of October, 1843; and his report, therefore, gives only the quantity weighed from that date to the 1st of January, 1844, a period of only about four months. The merchandise weighed by his predecessor, during the former part of the year, has not been reported. If it is deemed necessary to have merchandise inspected at all, the returns of the inspectors should be enforced; and the inspectors, &c., failing to comply with the requirements of the law, should forfeit their office and its emoluments, which, it will be seen, are large.

The following table exhibits the quantity and value of the articles inspected by the sixty-eight inspectors who have made returns to the department:—

Articles.	Inspected.	Value.
Flour and meal,.....bbls.	2,162,906½	\$9,995,100 63½
Beef,.....	40,371	241,965 00
Pork,.....	137,906	1,270,841 37
Leather,.....lbs.	13,624,769	2,092,301 98
Domestic distilled spirits,.....galls.	2,339,915	512,941 05
Staves and heading,.....pieces	4,778,204	130,207 72
Pot ashes,.....lbs.	24,017,803	1,057,950 69
Pearl ashes,.....	7,690,512	396,414 73
Green hides and skins,.....	1,178,903	45,277 75
Fish, or liver oil,.....galls.	24,115	10,128 30
Leaf tobacco,.....hhds.	11,819	889,923 00
Hops,.....lbs.	660,911	43,611 48
Lumber,.....feet	51,592,348	875,608 05
Grain,.....bush.	2,224,641	1,104,672 62
Total,.....		\$18,666,944 37½
Valuation in 1842,.....		17,931,660 78
Increase in valuation in 1843,.....		\$735,283 59½

The gross amount of fees received by the sixty-eight inspectors who made returns, for their services, amounts to the sum of *one hundred and sixty-one thousand nine hundred and twenty-one dollars, and twenty-one cents*; which gives a salary of more than \$2,380 to each of the sixty-eight inspectors. The highest sum received by a single inspector, (the inspector of pot and pearl ashes, in the city of New York,) was \$36,034 22; nearly one-third more than the president of the United States receives. Mr. Young, secretary of the state, in his report of the inspections of 1842, urges the repeal of the compulsory provisions of the inspection laws. In that report, he says—“It is time to examine, in all its details, this antiquated system, which has inflicted immense expense upon both producer and consumer; which affords constant temptation to fraud; produces an avidity for fees, creating double and partial inspection; and which stifles invention, paralyzes competition, and represses every motive to improvement.”

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES

FOR FIFTY-FOUR YEARS—PAYMENTS INTO THE TREASURY, AND COST OF COLLECTING REVENUE.

Years.	Val. of all exports from U. States.	Val. of imports into the U. States.	Payments into treasury on account of them.	Cost of collec- tion, &c.
1789,*.....	\$20,205,156
1791,†.....	19,012,041	\$52,200,000	\$4,399,472 99	\$239,541 03
1792.....	20,753,098	31,500,000	3,443,070 85	161,754 80
1793.....	26,109,572	31,100,000	4,255,306 56	188,362 13
1794.....	33,026,233	34,600,000	4,801,065 28	221,090 23
1795.....	47,989,472	69,756,268	5,588,461 26	260,359 28
1796.....	97,064,097	81,436,164	6,567,087 94	291,206 92
1797.....	56,850,206	75,379,406	7,549,649 65	343,434 26
1798.....	61,527,097	68,551,700	7,106,061 93	375,879 33
1799.....	78,665,522	79,068,148	6,610,449 31	412,183 45
1800.....	70,971,780	91,252,768	9,080,932 73	440,373 62
1801.....	94,115,925	111,363,511	10,750,778 93	482,772 70
1802.....	72,483,160	76,333,333	12,438,235 74	492,205 55
1803.....	55,800,033	64,666,666	10,479,417 61	405,536 37
1804.....	77,699,074	85,000,000	11,098,565 33	488,333 24
1805.....	95,566,921	120,000,000	12,936,487 04	557,541 94
1806.....	101,536,963	129,000,000	14,667,698 17	613,785 88
1807.....	108,343,150	138,500,000	15,845,521 61	615,621 71
1808.....	22,430,960	56,990,000	16,363,550 58	565,235 14
1809.....	52,203,231	59,400,000	7,257,506 62	498,130 77
1810.....	66,757,974	85,400,000	8,583,309 31	437,208 72
1811.....	61,316,831	53,400,000	13,313,222 73	441,129 02
1812.....	38,527,236	77,030,000	8,958,777 53	477,726 57
1813.....	27,855,997	22,005,000	13,224,623 25	414,171 88
1814.....	6,927,441	12,965,000	5,998,772 08	352,561 14
1815.....	52,557,753	113,041,274	7,282,942 22	476,007 01
1816.....	81,920,452	147,103,000	36,306,874 87	819,038 22
1817.....	87,671,569	99,250,000	26,283,348 49	782,308 09
1818.....	93,281,133	121,750,000	17,176,385 00	769,206 50
1819.....	70,142,521	87,125,000	20,283,608 76	810,220 14
1820.....	69,691,669	74,450,000	15,005,612 15	777,764 32
1821.....	64,974,382	62,585,721	18,115,705 57	700,528 97
1822.....	72,160,387	83,241,541	24,066,066 43	728,964 82
1823.....	74,699,030	77,579,267	22,402,024 29	766,699 02
1824.....	75,986,657	80,549,007	25,486,817 86	779,739 88
1825.....	99,535,388	96,340,075	31,653,871 50	889,302 93
1826.....	77,595,322	84,974,477	26,083,861 97	886,999 48
1827.....	82,324,827	79,484,068	27,948,956 57	889,818 27
1828.....	72,264,686	88,509,824	29,951,251 90	932,093 63
1829.....	72,358,671	74,492,527	27,688,701 11	1,013,667 58
1830.....	73,849,508	70,876,920	28,389,505 05	1,055,115 37
1831.....	81,310,583	103,191,124	36,596,118 19	1,216,009 57
1832.....	87,176,943	101,029,266	29,341,175 65	1,315,975 36
1833.....	90,140,433	108,118,311	24,177,578 52	1,351,543 97
1834.....	104,336,973	126,521,332	18,960,705 96	1,264,545 37
1835.....	121,693,577	149,895,742	25,890,726 66	1,284,997 69
1836.....	128,663,040	189,980,035	30,818,327 67	1,397,469 10
1837.....	117,419,376	140,989,217	18,134,131 01	1,492,947 84
1838.....	108,486,616	113,717,404	19,702,825 45	1,514,633 34
1839.....	121,028,416	162,092,132	25,554,533 96	1,724,591 89
1840.....	132,085,946	107,141,519	15,104,790 93	1,542,319 24
1841.....	121,851,803	127,946,177	19,919,492 17	1,483,960 08
1842.....	104,691,534	100,162,087	16,622,746 84	1,458,442 58
1843,†.....	100,063,266	89,260,895	\$17,000,000 00

* From March 4. The nett amount of duties on imports, from the 1st of October, 1789, to 30th of September, 1790, according to the official report of the secretary, was \$1,903,709 48 $\frac{1}{2}$.

† To December 31.

‡ A part of the last quarter estimated.

§ This is not exact, but cannot be far out of the way. The amount of duties during the nine months from Jan. 1, 1843, to Sept. 30, in the same year, was \$13,179,116.

 THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*Narrative of the Texan Santa Fe Expedition. Comprising a Tour through Texas, &c., &c.* By GEORGE WILKINS KENDALL. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is one of the most wonderful series of barbarities, and of romantic adventures, we have ever read. Mr. Kendall has written his account of the whole matter with a spirit and in a vein of humor we have seldom seen exhibited anywhere. It is by far the most interesting and entertaining book of travels published this season; and has already, we have no doubt, attained a popularity without example in the history of similar works. The detail of the treacherous betrayal of the expedition into the hands of the Mexicans, their subsequent march to the city of Mexico, accompanied by incidents of the most infamous atrocity and outrageous barbarity; his long imprisonment in the prisons and hospitals of that capital, and the whole train of circumstances which attended his captivity, are of the most thrilling and exciting character. Conspicuous among the characteristics of the work, is the spirit of humor, and hearty good nature, which pervades the whole of it. Mr. Kendall's spirit was not daunted in the least by the extraordinary scenes through which he passed; and his courage and humor, his endurance, and noble-hearted bearing throughout the whole, lend the charm of romance to his remarkable book. It will be found to contain much original and very valuable information concerning Mexico, Texas, and the sections through which he passed, and a mass of pleasant anecdote and remark.

- 2.—*Tables of Interest, by Months and Days, and by Current Days, at 360 and 365 to the Year, computed at 7 per cent, and adapted to other Rates. Decimally arranged under the head of Time. Together with Factors for calculating Interest, and convenient Time Tables.* By GEORGE A. STANSBURY, Esq., Counsellor at Law, large 8vo., pp. 184. New York: Harper & Brothers.

We cannot, perhaps, show the convenience of these tables so well, in any other way, as to state a few of their properties in detail. The interest in cents, on any number of dollars less than a hundred, on any number of hundreds of dollars up to ten thousand, and from one thousand to one hundred thousand dollars, are each given, for any specified period less than a year, by inspection of a table which, though printed in large figures, occupies less than one-third of a page; and a similar table, for the period of a year, is always found, without turning a leaf. This is doubtless the most effective plan ever adopted, and gives interest under all the various circumstances of time and amount, by very few and convenient additions. As the method is explained by which interest, at any proposed rate, may be obtained by use of these tables, they are, in all respects, well adapted to supply the wants of banking institutions and commercial men; and, indeed, of all who require the convenience of such works.

- 3.—*The Library of American Biography.* Conducted by JARED SPARKS. Second series. Vol. 1. 12mo., pp. 398. Boston: Charles C. Little and James Brown. 1844.

The resumption of Mr. Sparks' labors in this interesting department of literature will, we have no doubt, meet with a hearty welcome from all who appreciate the solid and useful in book-making. The first series consisted of ten volumes, and this new collection is to be continued on precisely the same plan, and confined to the lives of such individuals as have been distinguished in America, particularly in that part which now constitutes the United States. The volume before us contains the lives of Robert Cavalier de la Salle, and Patrick Henry. The former was prepared by Mr. Sparks, and the latter by Alexander H. Everett. It is quite unnecessary to add that they are written in an elegant and scholarly style, and will be esteemed, in all time to come, as model biographies. The volume is, in every respect, an elegant specimen of typographical neatness and beauty, in no wise inferior to the handsomest productions of the British press.

- 4.—*Applied Chemistry—in Manufactures, Arts, and Domestic Economy.* Edited by EDWARD ANDREW PARNELL, author of the "Elements of Chemical Analysis." 8vo., pp. 175. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This valuable treatise is divided into four parts. The first, "preliminary observations," comprises considerations on the fundamental doctrines of chemistry, including an account of the laws which govern, and the phenomena and changes which accompany the chemical combination of different bodies. The second, on gas illumination, gives a detailed account of the process of making light gas from coal, and the chemical and physical properties of the constituents of coal gas, the modes of burning gas, and the economy of gas illumination; descriptions for making light gas from other sources than coal, &c. The third part points out the means for effectually guarding against the decomposing influences of air and water in timber. Dyeing and calico-printing forms the comprehensive subject of the fourth, or concluding part of the volume. Most of the leading processes practised by the calico-printers of England are described, accompanied with explanations of the scientific principles on which they are based.

- 5.—*Essays on the Punishment of Death.* By CHARLES SPEAR, author of the "Tittles of Jesus," "Essays on Imprisonment for Debt," etc. 12mo., pp. 237.

We have read this admirable series of Essays on the Punishment of Death with deep interest; and, in connection with the agitation of the subject in several of the legislatures of the states, and other signs of the time, it seems to us to indicate the progress of reform in regard to this relic of barbarism, which must eventually yield to the spirit of the Gospel. The author seems to have compassed the whole subject; and to us his arguments, figures, and facts, strengthen a conviction that our whole heart and judgment assent to, viz: that the punishment of death should be stricken from the statute-books of every government whose laws are professedly based upon the ethics of Christ. We hope the honest, but mistaken advocates of legalized murder, as well as those who have one lingering doubt upon the subject, will read this book; as its force and truthfulness must lead the former to review their opinions, and scatter to the winds the misgivings of the latter.

- 6.—*Elementary Instruction in Chemical Analysis.* By C. REMIGIUS FRESENIUS, Chemical Assistant in the Laboratory of the University of Gressen. With a Preface, by Professor LEIBIG. Edited by J. FLOYD BULLOCK, &c. 12mo., pp. 284. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The work of Dr. Fresenius has already passed through two editions in Germany. It is an admirable treatise of instruction, combining simplicity, usefulness, and the facility with which it may be apprehended, in a remarkable degree. The work has met with great success in Germany, having been adopted in the Pharmaceutical Institution of Rouen, as well as the Laboratory of Gressen; an institution to which chemical students in Europe annually flock in great numbers, for the completion of their studies. The decided recommendation of Dr. Leibig, however, who now stands at the head of chemical science, renders other approbation unnecessary.

- 7.—*Knowles' Elocutionist; a First Class Rhetorical Reader, and Regulation Book, containing the only Essential Principles of Elocution, &c., &c., with Pieces for Reading and Declamation. Designed for Schools and Colleges.* By JAMES SHERIDAN KNOWLES, author of "Virginia," "William Tell," etc. Adapted to the United States by EPES SARGENT. New York: James Mowatt & Co.

The present selection contains one hundred and fifty-six pieces, suited to every variety of declamation. Mr. Sargent has retained all the selections of Knowles that are of universal interest, and of perpetual value, and supplied the place of those omitted with others more appropriate to the tastes and wants of American youth. The introductory essay, on the principles of elocution, is admirably adapted to the wants of the student. It is clear and concise; and we consider it, on the whole, the best elementary work of the kind in use.

8.—*Drawing-Room Library*. Edited by EPES SARGENT. New York: James D. Mowatt & Co.

The three numbers of this serial already published, embrace the *Light of the Light House*, and other Poems, by Epes Sargent, now for the first time collected; *Recollections of the Emperor Napoleon*, by Mrs. Abell, during the time spent by Napoleon in her father's house, at St. Helena; and *Autumn Flowers, and other Poems*, by Mrs. Southey, formerly Caroline Bowles. A more tasteful or judicious selection of unpublished specimens of literature could not well have been made; and we feel assured that Mr. Sargent's chaste and classic taste will permit nothing to appear in the series but the rarest and choicest gems of literature.

9.—*Preston's Treatise on Book-Keeping*. New York: Collins, Brother & Co.

In this treatise, a variety of examples are exhibited, both of the single and of the double entry forms; from which the farmer, mechanic, and merchant, may make a selection suited to the peculiarities of the business or occupation in which he may be engaged. Among other features of the work, we discover that the method of converting a single into a double entry set of books, is well illustrated, by two or three comprehensive examples; and, we might add, that the averaging of accounts has, in its concluding pages, been elaborately treated. In short, the work throughout is manifestly an able and scientific performance, and promises to be as beneficial to the community as it is creditable to its author and publisher.

10.—*Preston's Tables of Interest, at 7 per cent, and Preston's Tables of Interest, at 6 per cent*. New York: Collins, Brother & Co.

These tables, as appear from unequivocal testimony from all quarters, have, for many years, been regarded by the business portion of the community with much favor. Their reputation for convenience and for accuracy, is proverbial. But few works of this kind have possessed the rare merit that called for a second edition. These have already passed through several editions, and their popularity furnishes conclusive proof both of their practical utility, and of the sound judgment of the author of this and other valuable works.

11.—*History of the Great Reformation of the Sixteenth Century, in Germany, Switzerland, etc.* By J. H. MERLE D'AUBIGNE. 8vo., pp. 362. Philadelphia: James M. Campbell & Co.

We have from time to time noticed the several editions of this work that have appeared during the last eighteen months. The present edition was originally published without notes. We stated, in noticing the duodecimo edition of Mr. Carter, that it was the only one embracing the notes. In doing so, the publisher of the work before us intimated that we had done injustice to him. We therefore take pleasure in stating that Mr. Campbell has added the notes and references to his edition of the *History of the Great Reformation*. On the whole, we consider the notes of very little importance to the general reader, as they refer mainly to rare works in foreign languages.

12.—*Woman's Worth; or, Hints to Raise the Female Character*. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

An excellent essay, replete with sensible hints and suggestions in regard to the education, influence, and circumstances of woman, that must prove a most acceptable directory and guide to her in all the relations of life. Let its dicta be regarded, and every true man, at least, will feel and acknowledge "woman's worth."

13.—*Sacred Songs*, by THOMAS MOORE. *Hebrew Melodies*, by LORD BYRON. *Palestine*, by REGINALD HEBER. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

14.—*The Loves of the Angels. A Poem*. By THOMAS MOORE. Boston: Saxton, Pierce & Co.

Two handsomely printed and gilded volumes of as pure and beautiful poetry as any in our language.

- 15.—*Sermons bearing on the Subjects of the Day.* By JOHN HENRY NEWMAN, B. D., Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 12mo., pp. 357. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This beautiful volume contains twenty-six sermons, bearing on the subjects of the day. Some of them are practical, and others touch upon the peculiar doctrines of the Church. Mr. Newman is one of the most intellectual and learned divines of the English Church; and, however dissenters may differ with the author, in his opinions in regard to the formularies of the Church, no one, we think, can fail to admire the genius of the accomplished sermonizer.

- 16.—*Rimini, and other Poems.* By LEIGH HUNT. Boston: William D. Ticknor.

The leading piece, "Rimini," which occupies the larger portion of the volume, is one of the most exquisite specimens of narrative poetry in the language. Several of the shorter poems are beautiful; and the "Feasts of the Poets" is in a vein of quiet humor, and gentle criticism, in perfect keeping with the universally acknowledged good taste of the author.

- 17.—*Illustrations of the Law of Kindness.* By the Rev. W. MONTGOMERY. 18mo., pp. 252. New York: C. L. Stickney.

This little volume is designed to exhibit the power of goodness in overcoming evil. The illustrations are drawn from history and daily experience, and must convince every one that love is omnipotent in its influence, on even the most depraved heart. We earnestly hope it will have a wide circulation, as it breathes, throughout, the genuine spirit of Christianity.

- 18.—*Uncle Barnaby; or, Recollections of his Character and Opinions.* 12mo., pp. 315. New York: M. W. Dodd.

This little volume contains some very sensible opinions on the ordinary events and circumstances of life, and just criticisms on such proverbial expressions as, "I cannot afford it;" "I will see about it;" "Do it, and it will be done;" "If I were you;" "I don't care," &c. It is written in a clever, sententious style; and the illustrations are at once happy and forcible.

- 19.—*Letters on the Moral and Religious Duties of Parents.* By a CLERGYMAN. 18mo., pp. 156. Boston: Benjamin B. Mussey.

An excellent little manual of parental duties, enforcing the importance of the early moral and religious culture of their children, in an agreeable and pleasant series of well written letters.

- 20.—*Memoirs of the Lives of the Poets. Biographical Sketches of Women celebrated in Ancient and Modern Poetry.* By Mrs. JAMIESON, author of the "Diary of an Ennuyée," etc. 12mo., pp. 376. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.

This delightful volume forms one of the admirable series of works published under the appropriate title of the "Ladies' Cabinet Library," embracing a series of works eminently calculated to improve the intellect, and elevate the taste of woman.

- 21.—*The Juvenile Library; a Collection of Moral Tales and Sketches.* Principally from the pen of Mrs. CAROLINE M. SAWYER. 18mo., pp. 254. New York: C. L. Stickney.

An excellent collection of tales and sketches, well adapted to impart the principles of virtue, while they gratify the taste and please the imagination of the juvenile reader.

- 22.—*What to Do, and How to Do it; or, Morals and Manners taught by Examples.* By PETER PARLEY; and *Wit Bought; or, the Life and Adventures of Robert Merry.* By PETER PARLEY. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

Two very pretty volumes, inculcating, in Peter Parley's happiest vein of anecdote, and agreeable narrative, the salutary lessons of real goodness.

23.—*Simmonds' Colonial Magazine, and Foreign Miscellany*. Edited by P. L. SIMMONDS, Esq., F. S. S., Honorary and Corresponding Member of the Statistical and Geographical Societies of Paris, &c., &c. London: P. L. Simmonds.

We have received the numbers of this valuable Magazine for January, February, and March, 1844. The leading object of the work is to diffuse accurate information touching the geography, history, statistics, commerce, &c., of the British dependencies or colonies, in the four quarters of the globe. Mr. Simmonds has long been connected with the Foreign and Colonial Office in London, and has made himself familiar with the affairs and condition of the British possessions abroad. The work is ably conducted, and embraces a vast amount of information, of great value to the merchant, statesman, and political economist. We esteem it one of the best publications of the British press. To us, it is of more value than any with which we are acquainted. We cordially recommend it to our numerous subscribers in British America.

24.—*The Anglo-American*. Edited by A. D. PATTERSON. New York: E. S. Garvin & Co.

We seldom find space to notice the Journals of the day, and it is rather out of our province. We cannot, however, refrain from expressing our admiration of the talent evinced in the conduct of this Journal. The selections from the foreign periodical press are of the choicest kind, and display sound judgment, and the most correct and discriminating taste. It, on the whole, furnishes the best compend of European literature and news of any of the weekly Journals in this country.

25.—*Religion in America; or, an Account of the Origin, Progress, Relation to the State, and Present Condition of the Evangelical Churches in the United States. With Notices of the Unevangelical Denominations*. By ROBERT BAIRD. 8vo., pp. 343. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This is quite a readable book, and contains considerable information concerning the history of sects in the United States. It is not remarkably philosophical; and, although Mr. Baird professes to be quite tolerant, the Catholics, Unitarians, Swedenborgians, and many others who are denominated unevangelical, would hardly consider his criticisms either liberal or just.

BOOKS IN PAMPHLET FORM, PUBLISHED SINCE OUR LAST.

- 1.—*Rural Life in England. A Domestic Romance*. By the author of "Lights and Shadows of Factory Life." New York: J. Winchester.
- 2.—*Facts and Arguments on the Transmission of Intellectual and Moral Qualities from Parents to Offspring*. Second edition, improved. 12mo., pp. 191. New York: J. Winchester.
- 3.—*The Musical Album; a Collection of Concerted Pieces for Soprano Voices*. Edited by E. IVES, jr. Parts 1, 2, and 3. pp. 48. New York: J. Winchester.
- 4.—*The Fortune-Hunter; or, The Adventures of a Man about Town. A Novel of New York Society*. By Mrs. HELEN BERKLEY. 8vo., pp. 108. New York: J. Winchester.
- 5.—*A Dissertation on the Rule of Faith. Delivered before the American Bible Society, and published by their request*. By GARDINER SPRING. 8vo., pp. 104. New York: Leavitt, Trow & Co.
- 6.—*The Adventures of Hercules Hardy; or, Guiana in 1772*. By EUGENE SUE. Translated from the French by THOMAS POOLEY, Esq. 8vo., pp. 70. New York: J. Winchester.
- 7.—*The Banking-House. A History in Three Parts*. 8vo., pp. 56. New York: J. Winchester.
- 8.—*The Complete Florist; a Manual of Gardening, containing Practical Instructions for the Management of Greenhouse Plants, and for the Cultivation of the Shrubbery, the Flower Garden, and the Lawn. With Descriptions of the Plants and Trees most worthy of culture, in each Department. With Additions and Amendments. Adapted to the climate of the United States*. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard.
- 9.—*The Tales of the Hall. A Poem*. By the Rev. GEORGE CRABBE. 12mo., pp. 129. New York: Burgess, Stringer & Co.
- 10.—*A Popular View of the Doctrines of Charles Fourier*. By PARKE GODWIN. 8vo., pp. 120. New York: J. S. Redfield.
- 11.—*Pocket Editions of Select Novels, No. 2. Young Kate; or, the Rescue. A Tale of the Great Kanawha*. Two volumes in one. 18mo., pp. 293. New York: Harper & Brothers.
- 12.—*A Defence of the Christian Religion, &c*. By Hon. DANIEL WEBSTER. 8vo., pp. 76. New York: Mark H. Newman.